DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 044 549 AC 008 553

AUTHOR Dady, Milan B., Comp.; And Others
TITLE An In-Service Training Manual for Teacher-Aides.
INSTITUTION Morehead State Univ., Ky.
SPONS AGENCY Office of Economic Opportunity, Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE 69
NOTE 228p.

EDRS PRICE EDRS Price MF-$1.00 HC-$11.50
DESCRIPTORS Audiovisual Aids, Career Opportunities, Health Education, *Helping Relationship, Home Visits, Hygiene, *Inservice Education, Interpersonal Relationship, *Manuals, Material Development, Office Machines, Public Schools, Reading, School Libraries, Slow Learners, *Teacher Aides, Training, Writing
IDENTIFIERS New Careers

ABSTRACT

The manual is divided into 26 lessons aimed at discussing the functions of teacher aides; their relationship with the teachers and children, and the part they play in an educational system. Some of the topics discussed are: need for training teacher aides; training for partnership; role of public schools in American society; the role of the teacher in the public schools; child training; child behavior; characteristics of a good teacher; course planning; and subject analysis; teaching methods; testing; teacher and teacher aide relationship; responsibilities of teachers; secondary education; school and home relations; group and individual training; home visitation; reading and arithmetic instruction; mastering of duplicating techniques and machines; personality characteristics; slow learners; preparing instructional materials; health education in schools; improving children's interpersonal relations; working in the library; care, use, and operation of audiovisual equipment; and career opportunities for teacher aides. (PT)

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AN IN-SERVICE TRAINING MANUAL FOR TEACHER-AIDES

Milan B. Dady, Editor

Office of Research and Development
Morehead State University
Morehead, Kentucky
for
The United States Office of Economic Opportunity
1969

AC008553

ED0 44549

AN
IN-SERVICE TRAINING MANUAL
FOR TEACHER-AIDES

Compiled by Milan B. Dady
Professor of Education
Morehead State University

With the Assistance of:

Isabel Baker
Tim Baker
Leonard Burkett
Nona Burress Triplett
Louise Combs
Rolland Dewing
Sharon Durham
William Hampton
William Keller
Elaine Kirk
James Latham
Paul Raines
Jo Ann Setser
Randall Wells
Clark Wotherspoon
Ellen Young

RECOMMENDED FOR USE IN REGULARLY SCHEDULED TRAINING SESSIONS
THAT ARE CONDUCTED BY A TRAINING SPECIALIST

This manual has been prepared pursuant to a contract with
the United States Office of Economic Opportunity

and under the direction of:

Morris Norfleet, Vice-President
Office of Research and Development
Morehead State University
Morehead, Kentucky

1969

PREFACE

In the summer of 1967, a six-weeks training program for teacher-aide trainees was conducted on the campus at Morehead State University. The training program was funded in part by a research and demonstration grant from the Office of Economic Opportunity which was coordinated by the Bank Street College of Education in New York City. One of the felt needs evolving out of the project was the urgency of preparing a training manual for teacher-aides. During the 1968-1969 school year, Morehead State University contracted with the Clay and Pulaski County Schools in Kentucky to conduct training sessions for their teacher-aides who were employed by Title I Funds of the E. S. E. A. During the period of training, the first draft of the training manual was assembled. The lessons were subsequently revised and prepared for publication in this manual.

The University is indebted to the school personnel in Clay and Pulaski Counties for their participation in the initial processes of developing the manual.

The University is especially appreciative of the efforts of the United States Office of Economic Opportunity to upgrade the opportunities for low-income people in our nation and for its willingness to finance the cost of publishing this manual.

Morris Norfleet, Vice-President
Office of Research and Development
Morehead State University

PERSONNEL ROSTERS

CLAY COUNTY SCHOOLS, MANCHESTER, KENTUCKY

Mrs. Mallie Bledsoe, Superintendent
Miss Lena Howard, Assistant Superintendent
Miss Alta Blair, Instructional Supervisor
Kelly Morgan, Instructional Supervisor
Perle Estridge, Coordinator of Title I Programs

Teacher-Aides

Carol Abner
Beulah Adams
Bobbie Baker
Eula Bowling
Merlene Brown
Laddie Burns
Wanda Caldwell
Mary Campbell
Anna Chestnut
Ruby Corum
Elsie Craft
Martha Craft
Paula Crawford
Irene Deaton
Joulene Dezarn
Elizabeth Ferguson
Vivian Funely
Audrey Gabbard
Sandra Harrison
Phyllis Gibson
Joetta Gray
Bonnie Hacker
Ruth Hacker
Brenda Hampton
Carol Hibbard
Ruby Hibbard
Juanita Hooker
Audrey Howard
Eula Howard
Glenna Howard
Edith Hubbard
Mary Isom
Donna Jackson
Ruby Jarvis
Evelyn Lewis
Josephine Lewis
Jewell Loughron
Della Marcum
Dorothy Martin
Joan Martin
Ella Mathis
Ocie McGeorge
Opal Mitchell
Geraldine Mobley
Willamine Moore
Loetta Morgan
Marjorie Napier
Brenda Pennington
Esther Potter
Ann Rader
Ruby Reed
Sheila Roberts
Linda Robinson
Theresa Robinson
Reba Rosenbaum
Jean Sawyers
Ethel Sizemore
Vontella Sizemore
Janet Smith
JoLena Smith
Vanda Walden
Donna Walker
Wintress White
Verta Wilson

PULASKI COUNTY SCHOOLS, SOMERSET, KENTUCKY

Raymond C. Combs, Superintendent
Dewey Bolton, Assistant Superintendent
Miss Dorothy Alexander, Instructional Supervisor
Miss Bethel Burdine, Instructional Supervisor
Edward B. Webb, Coordinator of Title I Programs

Teacher-Aides

Lois Adams
Betty Alexander
Opal Baker
Lucille Bolton
Nida Bryant
Velma Burton
Rethel Davis
Irene Eoff
Mary Hargis
Thelma Hollars
Wanda Hood
Helen Jones
Faye Lawson
Ann Leigh
Helene Lewis
Ethel Lloyd
Maxine Martin
Faye Meade
Edna Minton
Ella Pleasant
Verna Simpson
Carolyn Spaw
Dean Wells
Nancy Wheeler
Iva Woodal
Marilyn Yahnig

SPECIAL PERSONNEL ASSIGNMENTS IN THE PREPARATION OF THE MANUAL

Isabel Baker, Instructor of Education at Morehead State University:
Lesson IX--Working with Children in Small Groups or Individually

Tim Baker, Assistant Professor of Industrial Education at Morehead State
University:
Lesson V--Planning for Teaching

Leonard Burkett, Assistant Professor of Education at Morehead State University:
Lessson XII--Arithmetic Instruction

Nona Burress Triplett, Associate Professor of Education at Morehead State
University:
Lesson III--Understanding the Role of the Teacher in the Public Schools

Louise Combs, Former staff member of the Kentucky State Department of
Education:
Lesson II--The Role of the Public School in American Society

Milan B. Dady, Head of the Department of Elementary Education, Professor
of Education and Director of the New Career Opportunities Project
at Morehead State University:

Editor of Manual
Lesson I--Introduction to Training
Lesson VI--Teacher and Teacher-Aide Relationships
Lesson XIV--Teacher-Aides Help Teachers With Learning Activities for
Children Who Learn Slowly
Lesson XIX--Understanding Children
Lesson XXI--Career Opportunities for Teacher-Aides
Lesson XXIII--Using Correct Form in Cursive and Manuscript Writing
Lesson XXIV--Helping Children Improve Interpersonal Relations
Lesson XXV--Working in the Library
Lesson XXVI--Helping the Special Reading Teacher

Rolland Dewing, Former Associate Professor of History at Morehead State
University; presently at Chadron State College in Nebraska:

Lesson IV--Introduction to Teaching
Lesson VII--Introduction to Secondary Education
Lesson XVI--Improving the Teacher-Aide Program Through Group Discussions

Sharon Durham, Graduate Assistant at Morehead State University:
Lesson XVIII--Good Grooming

William Hampton, Associate Professor of Education and Director of Reading
Laboratory:
Lesson XI--The Child Begins Reading

William Keller, Head of the Department of Business Education and Professor
at Morehead State University:
Lesson XIII--Business Pointers for Teacher-Aides

Elaine Kirk, Coordinator of Educational Television and Instructor of Education at Morehead State University:
Lesson XVII--The Teacher-Aide as an Audio-Visual Technician

James Latham, Former Professor of Education at Morehead State University:
Lesson XV--Assignment of Monitorial and Routine Tasks to Teacher-Aides

Paul Raines, Associate Professor of Health, Physical Education and Recreation and Director of the Program in Health Education:
Lesson XXII--Health Education in the Schools

Jo Ann Setser, Former Head Start Teacher at University Breckinridge School at Morehead State University:
Lesson X--Home Visitation

Randall Wells, Assistant Professor of Education at Morehead State University:
Lesson XX--Preparing Instructional Materials

Clark Wotherspoon, Associate Professor of Education at Morehead State University:
Lesson VIII--Improving School and Home Relationships

Ellen Young, Secretary for the Department of Elementary Education at Morehead State University:
Preparation of lessons for publication

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Lesson Page

I Introduction to Training 1
II The Role of the Public School in American Society 10
III Understanding the Role of the Teacher in the Public Schools . . 18
IV Introduction to Teaching 28
V Planning for Teaching 41
VI Teacher and Teacher-Aide Relationships 58
VII Introduction to Secondary Education 68
VIII Improving School and Home Relationships 77
IX Working with Children in Small Groups or Individually 85
X Home Visitation 93
XI The Child Begins Reading 102
XII Arithmetic Instruction 109
XIII Business Pointers for Teacher-Aides 117
XIV Teacher-Aides Help Teachers with Learning Activities for Children Who Learn Slowly 125
XV Assignment of Monitorial and Routine Tasks to Teacher-Aides . . 131
XVI Improving the Teacher-Aide Program through Group Discussion . . 137
XVII The Teacher-Aide as an Audio-Visual Technician 145
XVIII Good Grooming 158
XIX Understanding Children 172
XX Preparing Instructional Materials 181
XXI Career Opportunities for Teacher-Aides 192
XXII Health Education in the Schools 201
XXIII Using Correct Form in Cursive and Manuscript Writing 207
XXIV Helping Children Improve Interpersonal Relations 211
XXV Working in the Library 215
XXVI Helping the Special Reading Teacher 218

"Education should be as gradual as moonrise, perceptible not in progress but in result." George John Whyte-Melville

LESSON I

INTRODUCTION TO TRAINING

A. Description of Lesson:

The content of Lesson I is divided into three major parts: (1) The Need for Training. (2) Training for Partnership, and (3) How Do Auxiliaries Learn? Part One is a brief overview of what is expected of persons who are employed as auxiliaries in the schools. Part Two deals with the emerging trend in which professional personnel and auxiliaries train as a team and then assume varying roles in the partnership approach to meet the learning needs of children. Part Three is a report on the problems in adult learning with suggestions to adults on how to retain information obtained either through reading or listening to other persons.

B. Purposes of Lesson:

(1) To orientate the trainees to the seriousness of the job they have accepted.

(2) To point-up the need for involvement of teachers, administrators, children, parents, and other interested persons in a training program for auxiliaries.

(3) To ease the anxieties of trainees toward their new employment venture as school auxiliaries.

(4) To acquaint the trainees with recommended study procedures.

(5) To emphasize the training for partnership concept.

(6) To establish the goals for the training program.

C. Assignment of Personnel: (Is applicable only if a director is assigned to conduct regularly scheduled training sessions)

Teachers and administrators should attend this session both as participants and as part of the audience. Although it may not be desirable to have 100 percent attendance from the professional staff, each building unit should be represented. Assuming that auxiliaries have been employed previously in the school, it is highly recommended that a panel discussion be presented to establish the bases for present practices in their utilization and to express the concerns, problems, etc., of the various groups of persons affected by their employment. Included on the panel should be a member of the school board, an auxiliary, a principal, a teacher and superintendent or his representative. It is also recommended that an outside consultant be obtained for the first meeting to help the group set training goals and overall objectives for the auxiliary personnel program

D. Materials Needed:

The trainer may use the content in Lesson I as the materials needed to demonstrate to the auxiliaries on how to read and learn new material according to procedures outlined in Part Three of the lesson.

E. Content of Lesson:

PART ONE: THE NEED FOR TRAINING

People are continuously facing problems in which they feel there are no solutions. There are problems between members of a family, between neighbors, between races, between countries, and between the school and home. People often express dissatisfaction with existing conditions and become angry when changes are not made. In our schools today, we have many problems relating to pupil learning and some people including educators are unhappy with present practices; they want to do something that will improve the learning environment for all children. This training manual has been prepared to aid teachers, principals, auxiliary personnel, children, and parents to work together to bring about changes in the schools through a team approach to teaching-learning experiences.

Efforts to improve teaching-learning experiences must focus on children. Through education, children learn the basic attitudes, values, skills and understandings that they will live with throughout their adult life. The education of children, however, is provided in the home and the community as well as in school. Children learn many things, such as to love or hate, to feel pride in themselves or have no self-confidence, to work together or fight with other people, to strive for the great possibilities in life or to take life for granted, and to work for a living or let the country provide them subsistence.

Most children attend school, but a great many of school-age children have left school or are getting ready to become a dropout. These children are not talking about what the schools offered or are offering, they are disgusted at the schools for what they did not provide them. Their parents are blaming the teachers for not teaching the children, and the teachers are blaming the parents for not preparing the children with proper attitudes and readiness for learning. Many children have heard two different views on the role of the school in society, one from the parents and one from teachers, and they have been compelled either to take sides or drop out. In most cases of this nature, the children have been the losers.

The school and the community must work together, must plan together, and must understand each other. A program in which auxiliary personnel are employed in a school as part of the instructional team offers lay persons in the community and the professional staff from the school that chance. It offers teachers and administrators more time to complete their specialized tasks, and at the same time, it provided jobs for other people in the community. Together, they can help children learn according to the individual needs of each child.

To understand and reach each child is an important and difficult job. This is the main reason that this training manual has been prepared; so auxiliaries can become more effective members of the instructional team in the school and become more enlightened citizens in the community. Through training for partnership, each member of the team can learn to contribute to the instructional processes according to his background, experiences and abilities. Teachers know techniques and methods of teaching, learning process, and subject-matter content. Parents know about their sons and daughters, fathers and mothers, and brothers and sisters. Other persons in the community know about how it feels to have grown up in the community where the children live and they are familiar with the problems facing the children. Collectively, their knowledge can focus on the real learning needs of the children.

Each lesson of the training manual has been designed to improve the skills of auxiliaries to work with the professional staff, parents, other lay persons in the community and children in order to provide better educational opportunities for students. It is hoped that all of the above mentioned groups of people will come to know each other better; so they can work coopertively to achieve the intended objectives of the schools.

Auxiliaries will need to know some of the things that teachers know; so they can help them. They should understand what, why and how the teachers are trying to teach children. Auxiliaries need to know about stages in growth and development of children and how these stages affect the planning and procedures in teaching. They will need to discover how to watch and listen to children who are at different stages of their development in order to be more effective in understanding them.

Auxiliaries will need to learn or review basic skills, such as reading, writing, speaking, and mathematics in order to help the teachers in the remedial work for children and become good role models for the students. They will have to master work skills, including the running of duplicating machines, handling clerical matters, and preparing instructional materials. They will need knowledge on personal behavior, such as good grooming and interpersonal relationships.

As members of the team, it is hoped that teachers and administrators will become actively involved in the training program for auxiliary personnel and that parents and children will have opportunities to participate in some situations. Although this manual has been prepared as a teaching program for auxiliaries, the lessons also include recommendations for a trainer. It is felt that if a trainer is appointed and if a scheduled program of training is established, the training will take on new meanings for the auxiliaries. In a group training approach under the direction of a trainer; teachers, children, administrators and parents are more likely to become actively involved in the training experiences for auxiliaries.

Since teachers have worked alone in the classroom for many years, it may take special help for some of them to accept auxiliaries as members of the team. For some teachers, it will take special effort to plan and direct the activities to be assigned to auxiliaries. Teachers must learn to plan with other teachers in order to work out cooperative schedules that will assure the effective utilization of auxiliaries. The teachers will have to plan ways to use the released time resulting from the utilization of auxiliaries to learn more about the children in the classroom and then plan activities that meet the learning needs of the children. Teachers should have opportunities to explore ways in which auxiliaries may help in developing and participating in the planned activities for children.

It is normal for principals, teachers and auxiliaries to have doubts and worries in the beginning about working with people of differing experiences and training. It is important that these people have opportunities to talk out their worries and come up with solutions. Everyone involved should have opportunities to talk about the auxiliary personnel program and to relate their feelings; feelings that may come from other experiences in life as well as from current ones. The way in which people train together may have a bearing on the manner in which they talk about their feelings on the job and in the community which will affect the solutions of problems as they arise in the future.

This part of the introduction has been structured to provide an outline to auxiliaries on what will be expected of them. It is hoped that teachers, auxiliaries, administrators and other interested persons will be learning and that there will be learning from one another. Each person will bring different knowledge, different experiences, and different abilities to the school. If these are integrated effectively, the child will have the opportunity to take the combined product with him and he will have more opportunities to learn how to live a more abundant life.

PART TWO: TRAINING FOR PARTNERSHIP

Training for partnership is a plan whereby teachers learn new functions with auxiliaries who are being trained and employed as added partners of the instructional team. Prior to the employment of auxiliaries, teachers did everything that was done by adults in the classroom. In the expending partnership, teachers' duties and responsibilities are now being distributed among a group of people: teachers, special teachers, and auxiliaries. In some schools however, the division of functions has been made without regard to the needs within the schools. Training for partnership assumes that all members of the team will plan together in order to improve the learning needs of children.

Training for partnership pertains only to those auxiliaries who are assigned to work closely with teachers in the classrooms. Although other auxiliaries may be assigned to important work stations in the schools, they are not considered to be active members of the classroom team. Their assigned duties are supportive to the librarian; to the school nurse; to other auxiliaries; and to the principal.

It is recognized that in training for partnership, each auxiliary and teacher(s) with whom the auxiliary works will make up a team. The kind of training will vary with the needs of each team depending upon their backgrounds, experiences, and abilities and in terms of what they want to achieve in their classrooms. This means that a variety of functions, some new and some old, will be covered in the training sessions by different teams. It also means that all teams will come together to participate in sessions that are devoted to topics of common concern to all participants.

Through communication and cooperation, team members must come to recognize that functions are organized on different levels and that levels are assigned according to the qualifications of the individual members. This does not imply that auxiliaries who are assigned lower-level functions are lesser members of the team. Neither should it mean that auxiliaries who are assigned to lower level functions will be permanently "locked out" of higher-level functions. Basic to the training for partnership is a belief that each member of the team learns through his own experiences. As auxiliaries grow on the job and as the team improves its operational procedures, auxiliaries may be assigned more technically oriented functions. As a team proceeds in the training program, it may identify areas in which further knowledge or skill is needed. Administrators can then provide special resource persons either from within the school system or from other sources to work with that team. The training for partnership approach stresses the improvement of the team's operation either by the improvement of all members collectively or of members individually. The training for partnership goes beyond the mere preparation of auxiliaries for employment in the schools.

Some school systems may not have the financial resources to employ sufficient auxiliaries that warrents a realistic look at the training for partnership approach. It is felt, however, that persons beginning a career as a school auxiliary should have an understanding of the long-range objectives attached to their employment.

PART THREE: HOW DO SCHOOL AUXILIARIES LEARN

There has been little research in the past on how adults learn, but with much emphasis being placed on adult education today, more people are interested in finding out. For a long time, there was a belief that people reached a peak in ability to learn in their early twenties and then there was a gradual decline over the remaining years of a lifetime. This concept is no longer valid.

It is now held that an adult, without physical impairment, can be a continuing learner throughout his or her lifetime. This means that the auxiliary can look forward with optimism to being a continuing growing person. The thrust of auxiliary school personnel programs is based on this belief. The learning program for auxiliaries should be continous and open-ended (through to a college degree if the auxiliary desires) as is the learning process for children.

The concept of adults' ability to learn new skills and restructure their personality provides the basis for a training program for auxiliaries. It is felt that these people can learn new skills to go along with their life's experiences and that they will be able to make excellent contributions to the teaching-learning activities provided boys and girls.

As auxiliaries grow on the job and develop more self-confidence, they will probably find it easier to adjust to change. This is due in part at least to their developing a positive attitude toward learning new things and confidence in their continuing ability to do a good job even though changes are made.

Auxiliaries will depend more upon their previous experiences than will children. They will tend to solve present problems in terms of what they have done or known in the past. When given new information or faced by new problems, auxiliaries are expected to be capable of generating new answers and they are doing this everyday in their job situations.

As persons grow older they are usually less experimental and less willing to risk failure. For this reason auxiliaries should have assurance of success in their job before they begin employment. Also, they should receive job assessment reports periodically from teachers and/or principals in order to correct their weaknesses and grow on the job.

In years ahead, auxiliaries should have opportunities for planning and completing some training before being placed on the job. As the experimental programs in the utilization of auxiliaries become operational on a permanent basis, much of the training will come before the actual employment. Many auxiliaries presently begin the job with an inadequate outlook toward learning. These auxiliaries are likely to feel insecure both in the school setting and in training sessions. People, wishing to be auxiliaries in the future, should be provided pre-service training that will help them understand themselves and to develop a positive attitude toward continuous learning.

Many women, who may not have had previous work experience, are discovering they are now more capable of starting a career as an auxiliary than when they were at a young age. The women are discovering that they are now more expressive, more determined to succeed, and far more self-confident. Many women employed as auxiliaries have had few opportunities to get out of the home, but are making rapid strides to make up their deficiencies in the working world. An auxiliary soon discovers that she is working in a social process in which she is surrounded by other persons. She discovers that all other persons are observers of her and she is in turn an observer of all other people. The auxiliary is continuously having interactions with other people in which she is called upon to react to happenings in the schools and to be evaluated by others for her way of reacting.

Through the interaction processes with others, the woman may gain new insights into herself, she may improve in her understandings of others, and she may make changes in their behavior and attitudes. What this means is that the auxiliary will probably look at herself objectively, often for the first time, and she will notice her similarities and differences with others.

This is the first section of the manual for teacher-aides. Each auxiliary will ultimately determine how much time he or she will spend reading and learning the material. For auxiliaries that devote the time necessary to understand the material, their reward will be the discovery of real satisfaction in learning.

To learn this material, the auxiliary must be able to get the most out of reading. This may be achieved by following a few basic rules.

(1) Read quickly through the section being studied to get the main idea out of the material included.

(2) Re-read the pages slowly with a pencil in hand. Read difficult sentences over and over until you understand them and then write them in long hand. Look up words you do not know and write the definition in the margin for future reference.

(3) Ask yourself questions about the material and answer your questions outloud.

Figure out how you can use the information in your job. Think of actual illustrations in your job that point up to what the information in the section is referring. An attitude of "I have to learn this because someone says so" will not be very helpful to the auxiliary, the teachers, or the children.

After studying and understanding the material today; put it away, but come back to it again tomorrow and study the section again. Material studied for short periods each day, but studied everyday for four or five days is retained longer than material studied four or five hours during a one-day period.

In future lessons the auxiliary may learn that educators are concerned about memorization. It may be stated that memory work is not necessarily bad, but that certain rules should be followed. In learning new material, auxiliaries should not hesitate to employ the memory approach but these guidelines may help them:

(1) Before memorizing, be sure to understand the material.

(2) Do not cram your memory. Learn the material in small parts with rest periods between study periods.

(3) Review the memorized material from time to time.

(4) Put the information into use as soon as possible after memorizing it.

(5) Find the memory trick that best suits you. Some people learn best by reciting the material aloud over and over. Other people have discovered they learn best by writing it down over and over.

If the auxiliaries are to be continuing learners, they must learn to concentrate. If they plan now to re-study the material included in the manual or to learn additional material, the auxiliaries should set aside a time and place to study and have paper, pencils, dictionary, etc. available when beginning; so they will not be distracted. The auxiliaries should keep their mind on the subject. This means that they should not give the mind time to get deeply lost in thoughts not on the subject. The auxiliaries may want to employ the questioning process (asking questions over the material) in order to keep the mind on the material. A member of the family may be used to ask the questions.

In addition to concentration, the auxiliaries must train to be a good listener. In the job as well as training for the job, auxiliaries do much of their learning by listening, if their minds wander, or if they are not otherwise good listeners, there will be little or no learning. The auxiliaries should listen for the main thoughts being expressed by the speaker. If there are opportunities to take notes, it will improve the retention of the material. If the material is not understood, they should ask questions. The practice of not asking questions when confused only leads to greater problems later.

An old story well illustrates three basic attitudes toward a job. The incident is said to have happened on the occasion of the rebuilding of the Canadian Houses of Parliament after a devastating fire in the early years of the century. A man and his friend were visiting the construction area and chanced upon three stonecutters chiseling away upon blocks of marble. The man said to his companion, "Let's see what these men have to say about their jobs." So he asked the first stonecutter, "My friend, please tell me what you are doing." The workman looked up sullenly and said, "If you want to know the truth, I'm earning $3 a day." Asked the same question, the second stonecutter replied, "Do you see this architect's blueprint and this block of marble? I'm trying to shape the block exactly as called for in the blueprint." When the third artisan was questioned, he looked up with a smile, waved his hand toward the rising walls of the new building, and answered with a note of pride in his voice, "I'm helping build the Houses of Parliament."

The decision belongs to each auxiliary to decide what kind of an auxiliary he or she wants to be--(1) a person who is seeking only the salary that goes with the job, (2) a person who wants to do only that which is expected, or (3) a person who wants to be the best auxiliary possible and a person who has great pride in her work.

Throughout the introductory lesson, reference has been made to auxiliary personnel in education, school auxiliaries or auxiliaries. In future lessons these terms may be used interchangeably with terms, such as paraprofessionals, ancillary personnel, teacher-aides, and teacher assistant. For the purpose of this training manual, all of these terms refer to those people employed to supplement the work of teachers, librarians, special teachers and the principal. In rural areas, auxiliary persons are commonly referred to as teacher-aides.

F. Follow-Up Activities

(1) Using social studies textbook of high school level, practice the suggested procedures on how to get the most out of reading as described in Part Three.

(2) Using the above mentioned textbook, practice on the various techniques that were presented in Part III to help a person learn material.

G. Evaluation: True and False Summary of Lesson Content. Mark statements with "T" for True and "F" for False.

_____ 1. Almost all educators are happy about present practices in the school.

_____ 2. The school is the most important education institution in our society.

_____ 3. The drop-out rate in rural schools of America is very small.

_____ 4. For proper utilization of auxiliaries in the schools, they must be considered a member of the team that provides teaching-learning experiences for children.

_____ 5. Training programs for auxiliary personnel in education should be concerned primarily with improving work skills of auxiliaries.

_____ 6. Each auxiliary trainee should proceed independently in this training manual.

_____ 7. Adults can be expected to develop new job skills for many decades.

_____ 8. Adults have more experiences upon which to base decisions than do children.

_____ 9. Memorization should never be used as a tool for learning.

_____ 10. The ability to be a good listener is not a problem for the adult learner.

"If a nation expects to be ignorant and free in a state of civilization it expects what never was and never will be." Thomas Jefferson.

LESSON II

THE ROLE OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL IN AMERICAN SOCIETY

A. Description of Lesson:

In Lesson II, the historical development of the public school system in this nation is presented. Noteworthy comments by past political and educational leaders of our country are included. The established roles of the public schools are identified and discussed.

B. Purposes of Lesson:

1. To develop appreciation and respect for public education in United States.
2. To establish a historical basis for current educational practices.
3. To identify the roles of the public schools in our present day society.

C. Assignment of Personnel: (Is applicable only if a director is assigned to conduct regularly scheduled training sessions)

Teachers and administrators should attend this session both as participants and as part of the audience. A teacher and/or principal should be prepared to discuss the goals and objectives of the local school system as they relate to the basic needs of children and of society.

D. Materials Needed:

The films: (1) Education in America: Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries, (2) Education in America: Twentieth Century, provide an excellent pictorial review of the development of education in United States. The films take about a hour to view and may be obtained for a nominal rental fee from most distributors of educational films, such as the one at the University of Kentucky in Lexington.

E. Content of Lesson:

America's public school system is unique in the whole world. When history records America's contribution to civilization it, no doubt, will be the creation and development of a free and universal system of education. The idea of universal education was a revolutionary one when viewed against the European background. It was a fantastic idea, but it has lead to the greatest school system created by any people on the globe.

The public school system as it is known today is a modern development. It was not until the middle nineteenth century, more than two hundred years after the landing of the Pilgrims, that it was firmly established. The Constitution of the United States, written in 1787, made no provision for public education, leaving this function to the states. The public school, therefore, is part of a state system supported by state and local taxation, administered by state and local officials, and local boards of education elected by the people.

What is the role of the public school in American society? When students were asked recently why they went to schools, one replied "It is the law." Another said, "To learn how to make a living." Both the job-bound and the college bound said, "To get a high school diploma," one to get a job and the other to get into college. Another said, "To make something of myself." These replies indicate that schools have many purposes. The public school does not have one role but has a cluster of roles in American society - at least four central roles. All of the school's functions or roles cluster around its first and primary role of guiding learning. A little boy said, "The school is where you learn stuff." ~~It is a~~ place where education takes place; however, education is a broad process involving many institutions in the society, but schooling is that part of education that goes on under the supervision of the schools. Education in its broad sense is symbolized by the "torch of learning." The public school holds up this torch of light and enlightenment to each and every one.

The public school is the only institution in American society where the sole function is learning. In this role its first task is to produce a literate population. The school is a teaching agency for deliberate encouragement of learning whereby every child and youth in America may be educated. Historically the public school was charged with teaching the three R's, but the public has long recognized that there are other essentials in a youth's education; so today the school program includes not only the language arts and the communication skills but science, the social sciences, art, music, the practical arts and increasingly all areas of knowledge are being included in the public school program. Jerome S. Bruner in 1961 expressed the belief that the foundations of any subject could be taught to anybody at any age in some form. The acceptance of this idea is being reflected in the expansion of the school's academic program.

In looking beyond the content to the essence of education the National Education Association in its 1918 report entitled "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education" stated the general or ultimate purpose of democratic education as follows: "To develop in each child the knowledge, interest, ideals, habits, and powers whereby he will find his place and use that place to shape both himself and society toward ever nobler ends." Recently, a half century later, Harold Taylor in "The World of the American Teacher" expressed a similar concept by saying, "By education I mean the process by which each person becomes aware of himself and his place in the world at large and learns how to conduct himself in it and contribute to it."

In contemporary American culture the school has a heavy responsibility in the development of proficiency in the fundamental skills, in the transmission of organized bodies of knowledge, in giving each student an understanding of and appreciation for American democratic processes and ideals, in preparing each for his occupational role in American society, in developing the ability for each to get along well with himself and his neighbors. These the school fosters through a learning program which equips each student to realize his full potential in intellectual, emotional, physical, and spiritual capacity.

A second role of the public school in American society is that of *preparing for responsible citizenship*. This role cannot be separated from its primary role of providing a setting for learning. In fact, the development of citizenship is one of the seven cardinal principles set forth in 1918 by the National Educational Association as objectives of the school program. The development of citizenship is identified here as a separate role, however, because of the connection between effective citizenship and the continuation of democracy. In fact, the end product of education as described by President Dwight Eisenhower in 1953 while speaking on the William and Mary campus on citizenship. He said: "In an utterly simple way, I believe this: The true purpose of education is to prepare young men and women for effective citizenship in a free form of government."

The public school has the awesome responsibility of guaranteeing the continuation of the American way of life, American democracy - American civilization. The things which have been found to be good and worthy of being cherished are passed on to the next generation through the schools. Each generation through the public school keeps the ingredients of American civilization alive and renewing itself.

The public school seeks to develop lasting feelings about respect for other people, toleration of their ways and views, obeying the laws, the responsibility of being interested in the public welfare and other ingredients of the social conscience. Experiences are provided through which the ideals and principles and processes of democracy are understood that each one may be an intelligent participating citizen in governmental and political affairs, and in every day community affairs. The test of these values and understandings and loyalty to democracy and its laws is responsible civic action in society. The racial, religious and ethnic diversity of the United States with its current tensions and problems is increasing the importance of the role of teaching effective citizenship in the public school today.

A third role of the public school in America's democratic society is that of helping the home, the church, and society in general in *teaching the values of the American culture*. In American society a common culture has developed over 300 and more years of common experience. There are local variations of the culture pattern, but the common culture is based upon a set of accepted cultural beliefs and values understood all over the nation. American society has demanded that public schools reflect this common American culture.

Some of these basic values with which the public school is chiefly concerned are freedom and democracy, equal opportunity, unique worth and dignity of every individual.

The early colonists established nine colleges prior to the Declaration of Independence in 1776 as evidence of their faith in education. This faith was justified after more than a century when in 1787 fifty-five highly educated men guided by their enlightenment performed the "miracle" at Philadelphia - the writing of the constitution of the United States, creating a government by the people. The founding fathers then turned to education as a guarantee that freedom and democracy would be achieved and would endure.

George Washington pointed out that a free democratic society would depend upon choices and decisions and judgement of the individual citizens and that effective choices should be informed choices. He said "It is essential that public opinion should be enlightened. He designed a plan for free public education from elementary through the university level. His plan continues to have influence even though it was not accepted at the time.

Horace Mann offered the public school for all as the supreme hope for wise and just decisions. The role of the public school in preserving the way of life and in helping the people realize more broadly the values of the American way of life is reflected in a recent statement by Robert Francis Hutchins who said, "We might as well make up our minds to it, if our hopes of democracy are to be realized every citizen of this country is going to have to be educated to the limit of his capacity." Thus a second value - equality of opportunity for every individual - emerges from the first. Equality of educational opportunity, which is essentially the opportunity to develop individual capacity, is basic to equality of opportunity of any kind. Thus equality of opportunity proclaimed by the Declaration of Independence was a driving force behind the development of the American public school system. Education became a way or process by which the American dream - the hope and the promise of America - was to be realized by everyone.

No institution is more symbolic of the American way of life than the public school. It symbolized two great traditional ideals of American government - equal opportunity and freedom. It symbolized a process by which America's promise may be fulfilled. It holds up this promise to each and every one. Thomas Wolfe has defined this democratic chance or the promise of America as follows: "So them - to every man his choice - to every man the right to live, to work, to be himself, and to become whatever thing his manhood and his vision can combine to make him - this, ..., is the promise of America." The American dream with its hope and promise has not been realized for all Americans. It must be if the American way of life is to endure and improve. The public school and American society are aware of the challenge and are trying to meet it. This is reflected in innovative school programs, in new school organizations such as community schools and parks, in curriculum changes, and in teaching staff innovations including teaching aides. It is further reflected in the fact that the Federal government beginning with the enactment of the 1964 Elementary and Secondary School Act has put large grants of public funds into the public schools with a renewed call for the schools to make a greater effort to provide full educational opportunities for the full development of all - a renewed call for the realization of the American Dream.

Recognition of the unique worth and dignity of every individual is a value which is at the very heart of American culture. Ideally human dignity and worth are looked upon as qualities of mind and spirit that are within the reach of every human being. A system of universal education fosters this value. It is toward this human value that American society and the schools themselves are taking a new look today. American society and the American public school are recognizing that there is a need today for more humaneness. Human objectives which have always been a part of a school's philosophy are being given equal status with academic objectives. Education is attempting to make each one aware that he is important in his own right because he is himself and uniquely valuable with God-given potentials. Along with this renewed effort to realize fully the value of human worth and dignity the public school is attempting to develop a worldwide veiwpoint. Having been handed the leadership of the world as a gift from history, American society has an opportunity through its public school system to help Americans identify with the whole human race and to develop students with mutual respect among human beings that they may be characterized by the highly educated young woman who remarked recently "I feel that the whole world is my home town."

A fourth role of the public school is that of meeting the needs of American society. Not only do schools mirror or reflect the dominant force in society in each generation along with its ideals and values, but society makes demands of its schools, and the public school has been a force in helping American society meet its needs. A decade ago Henry Steel Comminger had said "No other people ever demanded so much education as have the American people. No other people ever served so well by our schools."

Beginning with the Puritans in New England, Americans have had a deep faith in education and its power to shape their destiny. In Puritan New England where concern with religious matters was dominant in the culture pattern of the society, so called "public" schools were established in 1647 by the General Court of Massachusetts for the specific purpose of teaching all adherents to the true faith to read so that they could read the Bible for themselves and know the reason for their faith. This was the first step toward education for freedom and is an early example of how American society used its earliest schools to meet a need of the society. This was before the public school as it evolved in the nineteenth century was established. The idea of public schools was a hazy one at first but under the leadership of Horace Mann of Massachusetts, who is known as the father of the public school, the idea became a reality by the middle of the nineteenth century for millions of Americans. The American society created the public school to turn the ideals of equal opportunity and freedom into reality three-quarters of a century after these two ideals were proclaimed in 1776 by the Declaration of Independence. They wanted to sustain these principles and values and to realize them more fully. The public schools after a long struggle evolved for this purpose.

By the turn of the twentieth century millions of immigrants had come to the United States from Europe and American society called upon the schools to "Americanize" the newcomers and to help them to adapt to the American culture around them. Thus the public schools met the need of making Americans out of the newcomers to the United States.

Also at the turn of the twentieth century a new need of American society brought about the expansion of the high schools as a part of the public school system. The industrial development created the need for better educated people, skilled men and women, and learned men and women. The common school was expanded to include high schools to answer these new needs of the public. A broader program of education was provided to create the new kind of American needed for an industrial society. Again the American society demanded and the schools responded.

In the decade of the 1950's following the challenge of the Russians by putting Sputnik I into the earth's orbit the schools were demanded to produce higher levels of achievement particularly in the matter of mathematics and science. In response the present curriculum includes not only "new mathematics" and "new science" but "new English," "new social studies" and greater depths of all areas of learning.

In the 1950's the problem of school integration was handed to the schools by the Supreme Court and Congress. The public school is struggling with this new demand. Its success will depend upon American society itself.

In the decade of the 1960's the American people developed a deeper awareness of longstanding social issues such as poverty, ignorance, racism, and unemployment and began to make the decision that these conditions are not inevitable and can be solved. They began to demand the schools to make extreme efforts to relieve ignorance. They began looking to the public schools for help in training manpower for skilled positions, to reduce unemployment, to overcome prejudices to reduce discrimination, and to change people in a fundamental way. American society faces the threat of the Kerner report from the President's Commission of Crime - the threat of "two societies, one black and one white - separate and unequal." This situation with its accompanying problems represents a failure of the American dream to come true - the American promise unattained for a large segment of Americans. This failure is rooted in long years of neglect on the part of society. The public schools are looked upon as one of the major institutions in the American free society which can help overcome the cumulative effects of long term deprivation among the nation's poor and disadvantaged. Today's American society has not abandoned but has renewed its traditional faith in the public school's ability to help society fulfill its destiny. The public school is the public's and in this decade the public is becoming increasingly aware that the school serves American society and has the power to help shape it. The public schools are responding to today's crises, but the school alone cannot "command the morning" and make the sun shine. It can let the light in - can illuminate the way for a better, happier, fuller life - for a better society - a better American society, and it is hoped a better world society.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS
ON THE ROLE OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL IN AMERICAN SOCIETY

Has the role of the public school in American Society changed since it was firmly established in the middle of 19th century?

Have the original objectives of education been abandoned or strengthened?

To what extent?

How has the role of the Federal government changed in regard to public education?

Do the schools bear the blame for the failure of the great majority of Americans (58.9% by U.S. Census of 1960) to complete 12 years of education?

How do the schools and how should the school teach understanding and appreciation of American democracy?

How could the school provide for democratic living in the school more effectively?

Is the school too authoritarian?

Does the respect equally all kinds of intelligence and achievement or only academic achievement?

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"Teaching is the greatest profession under the sun. I loved it. I still love it." Jessie Stuart

LESSON III

UNDERSTANDING THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOL

A. Description of Lesson:

Lesson III outlines the importance of good teachers to the optimum development of young people. Qualities of good teaching are presented and interpreted. Characteristics of successful teachers are identified and explained. When reading Lesson III, a person comes to realize that teaching is a complex process involving interactions between people of varying experiences and ages.

B. Purposes of Lesson:

(1) To develop respect for teachers as professionals.

(2) To identify the qualities of good teaching.

(3) To establish the responsibilities of teachers in the educative process.

(4) To recognize the casual relationships between teaching and learning.

C. Assignment of Personnel: (Is applicable only if a director is assigned to conduct regularly scheduled training sessions)

Teachers and administrators should attend this session both as participants and as part of the audience. A report by a teacher who has taught for many years would serve to illustrate how the role of the teacher has been constantly changing over the years. This person could report on changing attitudes of parents toward teachers.

A panel discussion by students on teacher characteristics they like and dislike would serve as an excellent framework for group discussion.

D. Materials Needed:

Any educational films or filmstrips relating to teachers would be useful. A Desk for Billie represents teaching in its highest tradition. This film is available for a nominal rental fee by distributors of educational films.

E. Content of Lesson:

The American teacher is a member of a profession known throughout the ages as a noble profession because of its uplifting influences on the lives of people and the maintenance of society.

The late Dean Ernest O. Melby of New York University said, "The question of who does the teaching is probably the most important question in the quality of any individuals' education. The individual teacher places his signature on his work just as truly as the painter who writes his name in the lower right hand corner of the painting."

Phillip II, upon hearing that his son, Alexander, was born said, "I do not know for which I should thank God the most - that I have a son or that he will have Aristotle for a teacher."

Recently, a person visiting schools in Canada asked a little girl to show him the nicest thing about her school. "Oh," she exclaimed, "You want to see my teacher!"

Another child, a fourth-grader in a Richmond, Virginia school revealed his respect for the teacher in the following incident. Upon the return of the teacher from Washington, D. C. where she attended the inauguration of J. F. Kennedy as president of the United States, the child exclaimed, "Miss Bindord, did the president see YOU?"

Yes, teaching is a noble profession. It reaches the lives of people at any age or level, all the way from kindergarten pupils to graduate students in a university.

Research substantiates the belief and principle that teaching is a very personal thing, and that the communication and relationship established between the teacher and the learner makes the difference. Incidents related in the foregoing examples are evidence of this. It is further supported by such writers as Dr. Arthur W. Combs. In his current book, The Professional Education of Teachers he emphasizes that "the good teacher is no carbon copy but possesses something intensely and personally his own----. The good teacher has always found ways of using himself, his talents, and his surroundings in a fashion that aids both his students and himself to achieve satisfaction - their own and society's. We may define the effective teacher formally as a unique human being who has learned to use himself effectively and efficiently to carry out his own and society's purposes in the education of others. Thus the essence of Dr. Comb's book is "a more precise look at the self-as-instrument concept of good teaching."

This concept of "self-as-instrument" is supported by Dr. Arthur T. Jersild expressed as follows, "the process of gaining knowledge of self and the struggle for self-fulfillment and self-acceptance is not something an instructor teaches others. It is not something he does to or for them. It is something in which he himself must be involved."

Teaching has always been and will continue to be complex because of the diversity of human beings - their nature, talent, motivations, and aspirations. The nature and needs of society add to the complexity. Within this complexity the primary role of the teacher has always been "to teach." This major function of the teacher has been reaffirmed at intervals by the teaching profession including the Educational Policies Commission, and specifically the 1960 White House Conference focusing on children and youth.

As a member of a profession the teacher does profess something - a set of beliefs, a faith in human beings and the development of their potential. This means that the teacher has a basic commitment to each individual enrolled in the schools of America to accept him as a "human being with feelings as well as intellect."

People everywhere are concerned with changing society, changing roles and changing needs. In the rapid changes many people are prone to think that the teacher's role has changed. The teaching setting has changed and rapidly continues to change with new discoveries, research, social issues, development of modern equipment, instructional media and materials. Significantly related to these facets of change is the fact that basically the nature of children and adults who are effective in our democracy have not changed. Thus the basic role has not changed since our public schools were established.

Horace Mann, known as the father of public education in America, called upon the public schools to teach not only knowledge but values, attitudes, and citizenship. The significance of the teacher in this endeavor is revealed in a poem written by Arthur Guiterman entitled:

EDUCATION

Mark Hopkins sat on one end of a log
And a farm boy sat on the other;
Mark Hopkins came as a pedagogue
And taught as an elder brother
I don't care what Mark Hopkins taught
If his Latin was small and His Greek was naught;
For the farmer's boy he thought, thought he
All through lecture time and quiz,
"The kind of man I mean to be
Is the kind of man Mark Hopkins is!"

Philosophy, languages, medicine, law
Are peacock feathers to deck the daw
If the boys who come from your splendid schools
Are well-trained sharpers and flippant fools.
You may brag of your age and your ivied walls
Your great endowments, your noble halls,
And all your modern features
Your vast curriculums scope and reach
And the multifarious things you teach
But how about the teachers?
Are they men who will stand in a father's place
Who are paid, best paid, by the ardent face
When boyhood gives, as boyhood can,
Its love and faith to a fine, true man?
No printed page nor spoken plea
May teach young hearts what men should be,
Not all the books on all the shelves,
But what the teachers are themselves.
For education is: Making men;
So is it now, so was it when
Mark Hopkins sat on one end of a log
And a farm boy sat on the other.

The major role of the teacher "to teach" is undergirded by many facets; however three are considered primary and basic to the growth and development of the individual. These three facets focus on a common core of teaching and learning which gives direction to maintaining security of the individual and the preservation of a democratic society. They are identified as follows:

1. To teach the processes, skills, and use of knowledge essential for intellectual development.

2. To teach values, attitudes and feelings necessary in human relationships in getting along with people.

3. To teach democratic living involving freedom of choice, choices basic to human needs and preparation for a career in life.

These tenets of the primary role, reflecting the basic goals of American education, serve as guidelines to the teacher and a commitment in attaining these goals.

In 1961 the Educational Policies Commission set forth in a publication the idea that the central purpose of education was to develop a "thinking person who can bring all valid purposes into an integrated whole." The Commission further stated that the essence of the ability to the ability to think included such processes as:

1. recalling and imagining
2. classifying and generalizing
3. comparing and evaluating
4. analyzing and synthesizing
5. deferring and inferring

Thus teachers search for teaching - learning experiences which will accomplish this central purpose - the development of a thinking person.

Guided by this significant purpose teachers of America plan activities with focus toward this accomplishment. Teachers at the Matthew F. Maury School, Richmond, Virginia (a school described in a book by Dr. Marion Nesbitt as the public school for tomorrow) in evaluating their role as teachers said,

> "The teacher must find more ways of giving herself rather than merely teaching a course of study... We would move away from the "assignment and checking process." Rather we would strive to keep alive the attitude of curiosity, the thrill of intellectual discovery; to give time for discovery; and to creat an environment that will life the living of our children in every possible way."

Other sources cite the teacher's role in seeking to develop the thinking powers as one "who seeks to develop risk taker - free, open, thinking individuals who trust their own responses..."

Today's teacher is challenged to provide learning experiences which are planned and structured to help children and youth gain skill in the thinking process through inquiry, discovery and problem-solving rather than memorizing and reciting back isolated facts. Teachers are accepting this as a significant part of their role as revealed by fifth graders evaluating their learnings in teacher, Helen Hildebrand's class in Dade County, Florida. One member of the class said,

> "I have found I had a mind to think. Even though I didn't make good grades I was able to think. Sometimes when you think about things they come easy. Thinking is the most important thing to me."

Another teacher reviewing the evaluations of learnings by the above class said, "Some smart, profound children do not make good grades. The world needs more of this - freeing children to develop and use their minds in processes which develop thinking."

This process cannot be developed in a classroom environment where desks are arranged in straight rows and nailed to the floor. It cannot be accomplished where children are not permitted to work in groups on cooperatively selected and planned areas of study and where opportunities are not provided for freedom of pursuit and expression of ideas and concerns of the individual.

The role of the teacher today must provide many and varied opportunities in the teaching process for the development of skills in thinking and the rational powers which recognize the human being as a possessor of these capacities essential to his becoming a self-actualizing person.

The teacher today must be a "guider of learning" rather than a "giver" of learning - that is a director of learning rather than a "ladler" of facts. It has always been important that a teacher guide a student in the utilization of knowledge rather than to have him store facts for facts sake.

This responsibility of the first tenet "to teach" - intellectual development must place a priority on experiences which help to develop the ability to think and use of reason in the solution of every day life.

To support this role another role comes into play - self acceptance, the development of attitudes, values, and feelings.

In consideration of the second tenet, "to teach" there is evidence throughout society, not just the inner-city and Appalachia, of the crying need for teaching-learning experiences which will develop values, attitudes and feelings necessary in human relationships in getting along with people. Values, attitudes, and feelings which direct human behavior are learned.

In an address to a meeting of the National Classroom Teachers Association Dr. Howard Lane said in discussing these fundamentals of human behavior, "We live in the bloodiest century of mankind. We have not grown up enough to live in the world we have made." Other remarks made in Dr. Lane's address pertinent to this tenet were that "all distinctly human qualities are learned - tools, languages, manners, values, superstitions, prejudices hatreds. A human being is a product of his culture."

Teachers need to face in their role of "to teach" reality as exemplied by one small boy after looking over his classmates, "Gee, I am glad we are different." Reality calls for acceptance and development of the differences inherent in each individual involving values, attitudes, and feelings - his and others. For example, another child in evaluating his learnings in the Dade County classroom previously referred to said,

> "I learned a lot in school this year, like more spelling and things but the most important things I learned were "strange things" you don't usually learn in school. Like how to make friends, and get along with people, how people feel and act, how to understand people, and about their worries. I learned to think.

In a speech made recently by the noted educator, Dr. Florence Stratemeyer, stress was placed on these learnings. She said, "We're realizing that a child's feelings are quite as important as the development of intellect. We need people who not only have good minds and will act upon thought but whose human relations are at a high level.... The teacher must help a child build a system of values.

In assisting the above statement made by Dr. Stratemeyer and examples of children's reaction to learning in these areas, may we assume the American teacher's awakening to the awareness of this need? If so the teacher will be guided by the belief that these learnings take place in the everyday learning and living together experiences in the classroom, where together the teacher, children, and youth face realities in learning. This humanistic approach which reaches out and touches the differences of all individuals will make the difference in their becoming and in their education.

The third primary tenet of "to teach" dedicated to the democratic ideal should help each person live each day in the classroom to the fullest extent and to prepare him for democratic living in the future, as well as to recognize that all human beings have this right.

Democratic principles basic to the above tenet were succintly stated in a March 1964 NEA publication, Return to Democracy as follows:

1. Every person has worth, has value....
2. The individual counts for everything...
3. Each individual is unique, different from any other person who has lives.... These differences are our greatest asset.
4. Each individual has his own unique purpose...
5. Freedom is a requirement for living in a democracy....

These principles are a strong challenge for the provision of democratic living in the classroom. A young person who lives in a authoritarian atmosphere in the elementary and secondary schools, doing what he is told to do without any freedom of choices is not likely to become a responsible citizen. He will lack the opportunity to develop self-direction and for being able to stand on his own feet.

The teacher needs to evaluate her approaches to learning. Does she "hear lessons" based on page-by-page textbook assignments or does she plan with students a variety of experiences based upon their purposes, needs and interests using the content of the textbook as one source of information?

The communication between pupil and teacher in identifying and reaching these real purposes, interests and needs is a "crying" need in the teaching-learning process. Relating learning experiences to these factors will pave the way and open channels for the individual to find and develop self. It will help to answer such significant questions:

Who am I?

What kind of person am I?

What are my beliefs about people?

Do I really matter as a person in this thing called democracy?

To translate these into ways of working the teacher must create an environment in the learning experience for activities inside the classroom and the extension of activities outside the classroom, and this extension does not mean the traditional "homework". The teacher will face and accept children with their beliefs, their ideas, their enthusiasms, their concerns, their fears, their aspirations, etc. She must realize that children and youth learn in many ways. She must be aware of the importance of a democratic classroom in the providing the learnings in the attainment of effective growth and development. What the teacher believes about her role in teaching will make the difference.

IF A CHILD LIVES WITH

If a child lives with criticism, he learns to condem.....

If a child lives with hostility, he learns to fight......

If a child lives with fear, he learns to be apprehensive.

If a child lives with jealousy, he learns to feel guilty.

If a child lives with tolerance, he learns to be patient.

If a child lives with encouragement, he learns to be
confident..........

If a child lives with praise, he learns to be appreciative.

If a child lives with acceptance, he learns to love.......

If a child lives with approval, he learns to like himself.

If a child lives with recognition, he learns it is good to
have a goal........

IF A CHILD LIVES WITH
(con't)

If a child lives with fairness, he learns justice........

If a child lives with security, he learns to have faith
in himself and those about him..

If a child lives with friendliness, he learns the world
is a nice place in which to live.

"With what is your child living?"

Democratic living in the classroom must demonstrate everyday that democracy is a cooperative process, that those affected by decisions must have a part in making the decisions and that opportunities for critical thinking and freedom of expression are basic to living. If "to think" is a primary objective in teaching an individual, the teacher must provide experiences in the thought process where many sides of an issue, a problem, or an interest are considered.

The use of knowledge, skills, varied resources, and techniques in the teaching-learning process are essential ingredients in attaining the third primary tenet "to teach"

Children and youth learn from experience and living. The learning situation is a powerful force in the effectiveness of learning. Today's teacher must assume responsibility for providing children and youth opportunities for experiencing and living the essentials of the democratic way.

Our society is demanding excellence from the schools in the development of intellect, positive and wholesome attitudes, values, and feelings essential to the democratic way. The teacher's role must be based on a philosophy consistent with these demands of society. Central to these demands is the insatiable belief or faith in man as a human being whose mind, personality, spirit and will can be guided in growth and development. Such a faith must be broad enough and deep enough to include the acceptance and education of "all children of all the people"

Questions for consideration based on the role of the American teacher are:

1. What is your belief as a teacher in the American schools?
2. Is the responsibility as designated in the three tenets of "to teach" too great for the teacher?
3. Why has the education of "all of the children of all the people" not been attained?
4. Is the goal of the school (American Education) a realistic one?
5. Who bears or shares the responsibility for the education of all in addition to the teacher.
6. Have schools in the past been concerned enough with attitudes and feelings of children and youth?
7. Does a child or youth's concept of self affect his life?

Suggested ways of looking at these basic questions may be through small group discussion, panels and/or role playing.

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"In each school an appropriate balance must be maintained in the educational program to insure wholesome, all-around development of the individual with provision for the stimulation and development of the useful talents of all children, including the retarded, average, and gifted children."
Lyndon B. Johnson

LESSON IV
INTRODUCTION TO TEACHING

A. Description of Lesson:

This lesson is designed to provide the teacher-aide with the basic fundamentals of what teaching is all about. It will discuss both the teacher and the student and attempt to suggest effective means of providing a successful school situation for the latter. First, some of the most important characteristics of the good teacher will be identified. Then a fairly brief discussion of the evolution of theory and practice of child-training will be presented. The significance of the role of the student's home and community environment will be emphasized. A specific discussion of the reasons why children behave the way they do and some suggestions as to how to deal with their problems will follow.

The last part of the lesson concentrates on the contribution the teacher-aide can make in the learning endeavor. It stresses the necessity for the teacher-aide to support the classroom teacher when dealing with students. The teacher-aide will be given some suggestions about how to clear up questions that he may have concerning the classroom teacher's handling of a specific situation. To help the teacher-aide further to understand the psychology of teaching, some specific lists of desirable understandings the teacher and the teacher-aide should possess are spelled out.

B. Purposes of Lesson:

(1) To provide insight into who is the good teacher.

(2) To present the theory and practice of child-training that influences educational practices in the classroom.

(3) To acquaint the trainees with the basic needs of children that affect their personal behavior.

(4) To point-up common adjustment mechanisms that children employ when they fail to satisfy their needs.

(5) To establish recommended classroom procedures for teachers to use when working with children.

C. Assignment of Personnel: (Is applicable only if a director is assigned to conduct regularly scheduled training sessions)

Teachers and administrators should attend this session both as participants and as part of the audience. This is a highly sophisticated topic that requires the attention of staff members who can relate personal examples of the different adjustment mechanisms. These staff members should exemplify the highest qualities in teaching. Time should be allowed for group discussions by trainees and other participants.

D. Materials Needed:

There is an unlimited number of films and filmstrips available from distributors which deal with pupil behavior and qualifications of teachers. The trainer could have the drama teacher in the high school prepare several 3-5 minute skits on some phases of pupil behavior which could be left open ended to allow for interaction between the participants.

E. Content of Lesson:

THE GOOD TEACHER

One of the popularly accepted beliefs among many educators today remains the contention that no possibility of distinguishing good teachers from poor teachers exists. They argue that teaching contains a great many aspects of an art and, consequently, each teacher must be free to produce his own creations without the restrictive burden of evaluation and conformity. Perhaps, in many cases, the teachers' fears are justified in that it is common knowledge in the profession that educators are not always judged by their professional ability. Basic research, nevertheless, has established that good teachers and good teaching characteristics can be identified. These same characteristics can help to identify the successful teacher-aide.

Most educational researchers divide their studies of teacher effectiveness into four broad categories of teacher personality and behavior: 1) personal characteristics, 2) instructional procedures and interaction styles, 3) perceptions of self, and 4) perceptions of others. Let us consider each of these broad categories briefly.

The personal characteristics of the good teacher do not vary from those of the good person. Almost every research project on the subject has found evidence that the teacher with a warm, human approach to his work is more effective in the long run than those with a cold, severe image. Some of the characteristics of the more effective teacher involved possession of a good sense of humor, an ability to relate naturally and effectively with children, and a more democratic rather than an autocratic philosophy in the classroom. Bear in mind that not all good teachers are blessed with a natural sense of humor nor an easy manner with children. If they know their job and work to communicate with students, these less socially-gifted individuals may perform in an outstanding way. Those who lack these gifts, however, should make every effort to avoid the image of being an ill-tempered, autocratic, inconsiderate individual, because these characteristics will wither the teacher's position in the classroom so badly that he may well lose his effectiveness with the majority of his students.

There is, of course, always a danger that the teacher may strike too liberal a balance in the classroom and completely lose control of it. This situation leaves itself open to as much condemnation as the dictatorial one. People who are just beginning to work with groups of children quite frequently find it difficult to strike the delicate balance that leads to a harmonious, productive relationship. Generally, the student will recognize and respect the adult who expects the rules to be obeyed and maintains good, but fair, discipline. A number of psychologists suggest that many students are indeed disappointed with a teacher who will not set and enforce adequate standards of both academic and social discipline.

During our country's early years, many Americans believed that children were born "totally depraved," and that, consequently, only strict discipline could save them. Teachers operated under the conception that firm control was necessary to break the student's will, somewhat in the manner that the cowboy might approach a wild bronco. Others argued that the source of evil was not the child but his environment; therefore, "naturalness" of behavior should be encouraged so the child could be "hardened" to face the evil influence surrounding him. Both of these approaches sometimes proved to be too rigorous for the mental and physical levels of the children. The third and less popular contention was that the child possessed many potentialities and needs, which parents and teachers should help develop and fulfill. The child was a sensitive being who required "tender loving care." Discipline was not ruled out, but it was to be administered with understanding and justice.

During the period between the Civil War and World War I, this third theory of child training, that the distinctive characteristics of the child were to be brought out, gained more support. Less emphasis was placed on corporal punishment and more informal relationships between parents and children were encouraged. More emphasis was placed on developing the child's self-reliance.

Some writers maintain that World War I signaled the end of American innocence as a nation. Certainly child training reflected the influence of the many new scientific and technological developments. For a while, theorists proposed a strict routine in baby care, early training of desirable habits, and systematic breaking of bad habits. From here, a great reversal occurred to the opposite extreme of permissiveness. Experts now recommended that the child be allowed to set the pace. The adult was asked to show greater tolerance to the child's impulses and desires. Affection was to be freely expressed, and discipline concentrated on the psychology of the act rather than the child himself. This philosophy emphasized the child's natural development and concentrated upon the "readiness" of the individual for certain kinds of learning. Nowadays, parents are still advised to be natural with their children, but they are cautioned that there must be some limitations and the child must face reality.

Educators are now aware that their work must be undertaken with the understanding that it must have some relevance to the student's natural environment. It can be demonstrated quite clearly that a good portion of the child's behavior is shaped outside the school. Perhaps the easiest way to prove this is through a simple time comparison. The student will not enter school until he is five or six years old. Then he attends only half the days in the year. His daily stay in the classroom is usually six hours or less depending upon a number of variables.

The average child, therefore, will have learned most of the basic skills such as walking, talking, relationships with adults and other children, aspects of his natural environment, and numerous other things before he sets foot in a formal classroom situation. Almost all of this learning outside of school will be shaped by the child's parents and the surrounding community. Needless to say, everyone in the community is involved in the learning process and the teacher must work with the parents and the community effectively to succeed. The primary role of the school in this over-all scheme of things consists of passing along skills not readily learned outside the classroom.

As teachers vary in personal characteristics it naturally follows that they will conduct themselves in the classroom in a wide range of styles. If one word only was permitted to describe the most desirable interaction with students, it would have to be flexible. To make this a bit clearer it means that the teacher who uses a variety of styles and techniques ranging from autocratic to permissive will achieve more success than the teacher who reacts with one set pattern to every situation. It might be well for the person dealing with children to think of himself as an actor who must react to a wide range of situations with a number of moods, attitudes, and expressions.

Good teachers have good self-images--that is they have a good opinion of themselves. Combs in his book, The Professional Education of Teachers, suggested several ways that good teachers see themselves: 1) Good teachers see themselves as identified with people rather than withdrawn, removed, apart from, or alienated from others; 2) Good teachers feel basically adequate rather than inadequate. They do not see themselves as generally unable to cope with problems; 3) Good teachers feel trustworthy rather than untrustworthy. They see themselves as reliable, dependable, individuals with the potential for coping with events as they happen; 4) Good teachers see themselves as wanted rather than unwanted. They see themselves as likable and attractive (in a personal, not a physical sense) as opposed to feeling ignored and rejected; 5) Good teachers see themselves as worthy rather than unworthy. They see themselves as people of consequence, dignity, and integrity as opposed to feeling they matter little, can be overlooked and discounted.

Logically, our opinion of others will be determined to a large extent by how we view ourselves. Just as a difference can be determined in regard to how good and poor teachers view themselves, researchers have determined that good and poor teachers have differing ways of viewing others. Several studies have shown that good teachers have 1) more favorable opinions of students, 2) more favorable opinions of democratic classroom behavior, 3) more favorable opinions of administrators and colleagues, 4) a greater expressed liking for personal contacts with other people, 5) more favorable estimates of other people generally.

In view of what has been mentioned so far, we can suggest that, like presents, good teachers come in a variety of packages. No one set way to approach teaching exists, but there are certain patterns of desirable behavior. The teacher must view teaching as a human process and be sensitive to individuals with whom he must deal. Additionally, and just as important, he must be well-informed about the material he teaches, and he must possess the ability to communicate his information effectively. The old saying that "nice guys finish last" does not hold true. But nice guys who do not know the information they are trying to transmit to others are not needed in the classroom.

DEVELOPMENTS IN CHILD-TRAINING

Theory and practice of child-training tend to reflect the social and economic conditions and the ideology of the times. Within this framework the adult world attempts to foresee the future and train children for it. The more rapidly changing a culture, the more its child-training is likely to consist of a combination of old and new practices. The United States, then, tends to reflect a combination of practices, some of which are different from those in other modern, industrial societies.

The significance of the role of the surrounding environment outside of the school undoubtedly prompted educator-philosopher John Dewey to successfully influence American education toward a more practical course. He proposed that schools should become communities in a miniature rather than "ivory tower" institutions. An important part of his educational thinking was that more practical and usable subjects, such as home economics and woodshop should be offered in the schools and traditional subjects such as Latin and Greek should not be required because they had no relevance for most students.

The traditional subjects such as foreign languages, advanced mathematics, and theoretical science are competing more successfully than they used to because of the present emphasis on scientific achievement. Whatever the curriculum may be, though, the teacher and the teacher-aide needs to understand what, why and how it is so he will know the educational purposes of his particular school.

CHILD BEHAVIOR

Teacher-aides also need to understand the basic psychology of human beings to make positive contributions in this area. It is generally believed that all human beings have basic needs of physical security, emotional security, achievement and status. Wanting to feel important and accepted, most people spend a great deal of their lifetime attempting to achieve these goals. It is important for those dealing with children, therefore, to realize that the activities in which youngsters engage are usually determined by their needs of that time.

Some of the needs related to physical security which children have are:

(1) Hunger
(2) Thirst
(3) Shelter
(4) Rest and Sleep
(5) Freedom from pain and injury

Some of the social and emotional needs of children are:

(1) Need for acceptance (feeling of belonging)
(2) Need for security
(3) Need for affection
(4) Need for independence
(5) Need for achievement

When a need arises, the child becomes restless and tense and seeks a way to satisfy it. When a child's needs have been met, a temporary state of satisfaction may result. Children, however, never achieve too much acceptance by others, too much affection, too much security, nor too much achievement. A fundamental task of the teacher is to be aware of the needs of children and guide them so they are able to satisfy them. That all of these needs can not be successfully achieved for every student appears abundantly self-evident to anyone who has taken the time to review the percentages of derelicts, criminals, mental cases, and other human failures that we have in society today.

The individuals represent the ultimate results of the individual's failure to achieve his needs. When children fail to satisfy their needs or have them satisfied for them, they employ a variety of adjustment mechanisms to make the situation tolerable. Psychologists have identified these mechanisms and it may be well to discuss the basic ones here as simply as possible. The group under consideration are: aggression, compensation, rationalization, projection, repression, negativism, withdrawal, and developing physical ailment.

Aggression

A typical reaction of the frustrated child is to attack the object either directly or indirectly. This is called aggression. Every child will have aggressive feelings at times. The teacher should expect to encounter if and to help the child find ways of expressing anger, hostility, and destructiveness without getting himself into trouble.

Compensation

Compensation occurs when the individual uses an act of success to cover up weakness in another area. For example, the child who cannot succeed in academic works strives to be the best football player, or the child who fails in academics may turn out to be the school's biggest rowdy. Compensation is not necessarily bad; in fact, it may promote good mental health if it reduces tension and if the compensation is carried out in socially acceptable activities. Teachers need to help children find activities in which they can excel and thus compensate for weaknesses in other areas.

Rationalization

The individual gives reasons for his actions other than those that are true. Through rationalization, the child is able to excuse his weaknesses and thereby relieve his tensions. In its simplest terms, rationalization is the art of excuse making. Teachers should make children understand that some problems have to be met directly and solved rather than rationalized away.

Projection

A child who uses projection would identify his weaknesses in other people, but not himself. The stingy child, for example, would accuse all other children of being stingy. Children who use this technique are not facing up to their problems and are using a method of adjustment that will lead to undesirable results.

Repression

Through repression, the individual escapes from his troubles and conflicts by forgetting them. This represents one of the most unsatisfactory methods of adjustment. Repression is thought to be one of the basic causes of many of the severe mental problems of people. It should be the basic goal of the school to give children opportunities to work out their problems rather than forget them or deny they exist. To accomplish this, the school needs to provide an atmosphere in which fear and personal inhibitions are largely eliminated.

Negativism

As the term implies, negativism is a device in which the child is against almost everything. In a school group, the child may stubbornly refuse to go along with the group; he may sulk, rebel against authority, and refuse to obey the rules. Some remedies the teacher uses are: 1) avoid situations in which conflict will come up, 2) do not make issues of minor forms of disagreement on the part of the child, 3) Reward positive behavior of the child when it occurs, 4) analyze own behavior to see if it is causing the negative response from the child.

Withdrawal

To avoid tension building situations, the child takes himself away from where the action is. The most common form of withdrawal found in the school is daydreaming. Everyone daydreams a little with no ill effects. But when daydreaming begins to interfere with the child's work, it then becomes the concern of the teacher.

Development of Physical Ailments

A child who has an examination but feels inadequate, may become so ill he will have to go home or he may not even get to school. After the decision to stay home or go home is made, he overcomes the built up emotions and is no longer ill. Teachers have ample opportunity to observe children who are caught up in this practice, but it is important to remember that, although the illness may be imaginary, to the child, is real and he experiences as much pain as he would if he were physically ill. Teachers should seek ways to make children feel competent so this type of adjustment mechanism would not be necessary.

RELATIONSHIP TO THE CLASSROOM TEACHER

As a teacher-aide, you will be in constant contact with adults who are working with children. It is necessary that you support the teachers with whom you are working at all times. This support must be consistent, whether you agree with the policy or not. Those who give lip service to such a policy but let their disagreement show through by their expression or action, are easily identified by the students. If you understand how school operates and the duties of teachers, you will know that they usually do what is best for all the children. Long hours of training and experience have given the classroom teachers a grasp of the nature of his task. He knows that he will have to guide the children to follow certain procedures and obey established rules if he is to educate them effectively.

In another section, the characteristics of children at different age levels were provided for you. In this section, information on what goes on in the school when teachers and teacher-aides work with children will be furnished. If you grasp these principles, you will be far more able to work effectively with children and their teachers.

Personalities:

1. In the lower grades, many children do not adjust to being away from their mothers all day.

2. Students at all grade levels find it difficult to adjust to a new adult whom they must obey. Children in the primary grades are apt to treat the teachers and other adults in the room much like they would treat their own parents.

3. A classroom of 25-35 children makes up a little community which must be governed by the rules and regulations. The children must learn new behaviors to get along with the other children in the classroom if the behavior pattern differs from those in which the children have become used to either in the home or in other communities.

4. Schools are operated according to middle-class standards. Neatness, obedience, cooperativeness, respect and the like are expected. Not all children will come from middle class homes and may have more difficulty conforming. For example:
   a. Middle class people have high regard for education, many lower class children are not motivated toward seeing the need for education.
   b. The lower class children frequently lack good adult examples. Ordinarily they seldom see successful people on an informal, social basis.
   c. The lower class child suffers from a lack of language skills.

5. Children worry about a variety of things that may cause them to do poor work. Some children fear failure; others come from broken homes or from homes that are troubled by sickness, unhappiness, poverty or other students.

6. Every person thinks differently. Given freedom to do so, children in the same classroom will start at different places and use different methods to solve the same problem.

What Do Teachers and Teacher-Aides Learn from Observing Children?

1. They don't make any judgment about children until all of the different points are given serious thought in terms of what is good for the child.

2. They learn they must like all children; the dirty children along with the clean, the sullen with the smiling, the cooperative with the uncooperative, the good learners with the non-learners.

3. They learn that they should not label children with names like thief, liar, or smart aleck. Children tend to grow up according to what adults think they should become.

4. They learn to know each child as an individual, being aware of his interests, his abilities, and his needs.

5. They learn to accept the belief that all children need tender loving care.

6. They learn to maintain a moderate attitude with children and understand that children do not mean to personally offend the teacher or the teacher-aide when they become disagreeable.

7. They learn to get at the why a child acts in a certain way instead of what he has done.

What Does a Teacher-Aide Provide?

1. An extra lap to sit on.

2. An extra pair of hands and legs.

3. An extra measure of personal warmth.

4. An extra pair of eyes and ears that will help each child learn more in the classroom.

Avoid Negative Relationships with Children

Simply stated, negativism in the classroom is an attempt to stress everything exactly opposite of what you want to achieve. Naturally, the opposite of the negative approach is the positive approach. The following examples contrast the difference between the negative approach and the positive approach.

1. Negative--stress what should not be done, such as don't run in the hallways.

   Positive--stress what should be done, such as walk in the hallways so no one will get hurt.

2. Negative--If you get caught cheating, you will get a zero on the test.

   Positive--I am sure that no one will cheat since he would only be cheating himself.

3. Negative--I hate my teacher because she is always telling us what we cannot do.

   Positive--I like my teacher because she helps us see what we should do.

4. Negative--Because David threw a paper airplane, all of you will have to stay in from recess. (Teacher is saying to children, reject David as a bad boy.

   Positive--Remember, children, all of us have a responsibility to help out his neighbor when he forgets our rules. (Teacher is saying to children, accept David as one of us.)

Teacher-Aide as a Model

Teacher-aides should recognize that children identify with the adults that they are around and that they are imitators.

1. Teacher-aides should be good models in health and posture.

2. Teacher-aides should be well-groomed.

3. A teacher-aide should demonstrate pleasant facial expressions--smiles are contagious.

4. A teacher-aide should have a pleasant manner and display good manners.

5. A teacher-aide should learn to use good language skills in the classroom.

What the Wise Teacher and Teacher-Aide Knows

1. Each child is a child (not a young adult).

2. Each child has his own pace of growth and development.

3. Although each child is different, he is more like his age-mates than he is different.

4. Needs of individuals must be met in the classrooms as well as the needs of the group of children.

5. Almost all children have a natural inclination to learn and to do the right thing although their behavior may not indicate it.

6. Success in teaching depends upon the ability to accept those that it is really easiest to reject.

7. Contrary to what we have thought for a long time, how hard-nosed a teacher was or how easy she was on them has no significant bearing on whether they were thought to be good or bad by the students; most people assess their past teachers according to how much they did to help them succeed.

Portrait of School Children

Almost Always	Sometimes
They observe	They work
They move	They play
They think	They fail
They feel	They maneuver
They grow	They balk
They learn	They have fun
They worry	They feel success

As previously mentioned, situations may arise in the classroom that will be handled differently than the teacher-aide thinks they should. The teacher-aide must support the teacher in the presence of the students at all costs. It is the only way a wholesome classroom atmosphere can be maintained. At a time when the teacher and teacher-aide are together, but outside the hearing range of others, however, the teacher-aide should be free to ask the teacher why she did what she did in order to become better informed on the ways and means of working with children.

It is highly important to remember that most children profit from bad experiences (even when teachers seem to be unfair and unusually harsh). And it is also important to remember that there is not just one best way to take care of classroom and school situations. A positive approach by the teacher-aide toward the teacher is the best assurance that the teacher-aide does support the teacher in his interactions with children.

Hopefully, the preceeding discussion has established that education is bound to the life process itself. It is concerned with the social life of the individual and it is accomplished by transmitting ideas and behaviour pattern through communication. John Dewey says, "Communication is a process of sharing experience till it becomes common possession." As societies become more complex, the need of formal or intentional teaching and learning increases. As this need increases there is a danger that a wider split will develop between the experience gained in school and that gained outside of school. The prospective teacher-aide, therefore, must approach his role with the understanding that he is helping to develop the individual within a broad framework in which the school plays an important, but not completely dominant, role.

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"The teacher, whether mother, priest, or schoolmaster, is the real maker of history." H.C. Wells

Lesson V

PLANNING FOR TEACHING

A. Description of Lesson:

Lesson V presents a comprehensive overview of what is teaching and what is learning. In the introduction, the reader is provided a brief analysis of how a teacher's characteristics affects learning. In Part I, recommended procedures for dividing course content into divisions are outlined. Then, in Part II, detailed descriptions on how to plan a lesson are presented. Part III deals with testing procedures and Part IV is a summary of the lesson.

B. Purposes of Lesson:

(1) To stress the relationship between good teaching styles and learning.

(2) To develop the need for long range planning and the association of daily lesson plans to long-range goals.

(3) To provide insight into what is a good lesson.

(4) To provide a better understanding of the close relationship between teaching and learning.

(5) To evaluate various teaching procedures.

(6) To establish the learner as the most important person in the teaching processes.

C. Assignment of Personnel: (Is applicable only if a director is assigned to conduct regularly scheduled training sessions)

Teachers and administrators should attend this session both as participants and as part of the audience. This meeting should be an open discussion. If the group is larger than twenty, it is suggested that the participants be divided into two or more groups with teachers being distributed throughout the groups. The content in this lesson provides unlimited opportunities for discussion.

D. Materials Needed:

Teachers should be encouraged to bring into planning records that illustrate their overall yearly planning, the breakdown into smaller divisions, and the day by day planning. These materials will provide excellent opportunities for the participants to explore first-hand evidence on how teachers plan for teaching and learning.

E. Content of Lesson:

The age old question of "What is Teaching"or "What is Learning" is still unanswered even today with all of our modern techniques. However, we need only to review some of the methods used by the Master Teacher to become aware that we must keep the knowledge to be learned on the level of one for whom it is intended. We will also note that tha parables always were related to the knowledge and experiences of the learner. He was able to take the simplest of ideas and build great truths upon them, because He always had the best interest of the individual in mind and simply wanted to help him meet his needs. It is with this same purpose in mind that we discuss the lesson on "What is Teaching" and "What is Learning" and what is the job of the teacher in relation to both.

If is often taken for granted that a person who knows a subject very well at once prepared to teach it to others. An artist, for example, who has become highly skilled may feel that he can readily instruct others in this media by showing the learner how he does the work and by explaining to them the idea and the purposes which are involved. It is only after he attempts to teach in this way and discovers how little his students have learned that the teacher realizes the need for better understanding of how learning takes place.

A teacher soon discovers that if a student is to learn what the teacher wishes to teach, there are certain things that both the teacher and the learner must do. The teacher finds that she must carefully plan her activities, and the activities of the learner. The activities which consist of ways and means of teaching are known as teaching techniques and methods.

The teacher must understand what is happening to the learner before she can successfully select the right method to aid her in bringing about the learning experience she desires. This is to say, the teacher must first know how the learner learns. We must realize what part is played by the teacher and what part is played by the pupil if we are to understand how individuals learn new skills and ideas.

The teacher cannot simply give the learner any skills or knowledge by presenting it to the pupil, neither can it be transferred into the hands or minds of the learner directly from the teacher. If we are to change the thinking or acting of the one who is to learn, he must pass through some active experience that will do something in which his mind and muscles will take on new ways of behaving. He must not only receive new ideas or skills from the teacher by observing and listening, but he must attempt to use these skills and ideas himself. The student may not realize it, but there must be an active part taken by him or no learning will take place. The pupil must put into practice what he has seen, heard, or read before learning can take place.

The student must pass through some active change in one or more of the following ways: He must think differently about something than he had felt before, or his attitude about something must be different, or he must be able to do something he could not do before if we are to say learning has taken place.

A person who has given only a limited amount of thought to teaching may feel that she has fulfilled her responsibility and that she has done a good job of teaching when she shows or tells a student how to do a job or presents certain facts; but telling or showing may not be teaching. While a person may have some natural ability for teaching, it is not necessarily a fact that teachers are born. Instructing skill is acquired just as the skill of the industrial trade is acquired. Efficiency comes through the study of teaching methods, purposeful effort, and continuous practice.

The difference between the trained and the untrained teacher is not the degree to which each has mastered what he plans to teach. Although knowledge of what is to be taught is necessary for a teacher, it alone will not make him effective as a teacher. A master of his subjects has often proven to be a poor teacher.

The difference between a person who knows and a person who can teach, rests largely in the latter's acquaintance with the principles and methods of teaching, just as the knowledge of the principles and methods of any trade make a good workman in that trade. It is the purpose of this lesson to familiarize the teacher-aide with the tools, techniques, and methods essential to effective teaching.

For a particular type of student, who is to be taught specific things for a certain purpose, it has been found that certain ways of approaching the teaching problem yield quicker and better results.

The effectiveness of teaching is measured by:

a. The result, the degree in which, at the completion of the teaching process, the student has completely grasped the new idea.

b. Economy of time and effort in obtaining this result.

It is evident that the first condition must be met. If the student has not learned what the teacher intended to teach him, the entire procedure has failed, and he must either try it again or admit that he made a mistake in attempting to teach that particular thing to that student at that time. The teacher may have succeeded in getting the lesson across, but by such unsuitable methods, that he used up more of his time and the pupil's time than would have been needed had that particular job or lesson been carried out in a workman-like manner; or he may have made the teaching operation hard by doing the job in such a way that more energy was expended, either on his part or on the part of the pupil, than the results warrented.

Characteristics of a Good Teacher

1. The teacher should want to teach just as the learner should want to learn.

2. The teacher must have more than the normal amount of courtesy in order to be a good teacher.

3. She must learn all she can about the subject she is going to teach.

4. She must have a high degree of interest in people, particularly those people whom she plans to teach.

5. The teacher should have a keen sense of responsibility. The responsibility of a teacher is a grave and important one for she shapes not only the abilities and thinking of her students, but, because of this, their character and their lives.

Physical Appearance

The physical appearance of a teacher has much to do with her success or failure. He should give thought to his dress in order that what he wears will not distract from his teaching. Therefore, he should be neat, clean, and well groomed in a conservative sort of way. If a teacher permits his clothing, his hair, and his manners to become disarrayed because of job conditions, students may be lead to do the same.

Generally speaking, the teacher who sits as he teaches is lazy and inefficient. A teacher who stands before the class is better able to demonstrate equipment, illustrate on charts and blackboards, emphasize teaching by directing his remarks toward students who may be disinterested, and maintain discipline and efficiency throughout his class. A teacher who stands before a class is considerate of the students, particularly those who otherwise would have to sit in an uncomfortable position in order to see and hear the teacher.

Posture and Gestures

Since a good teacher stands before the class, his posture is of the highest importance. He should stand erect and be well poised, letting his movements be natural but subordinate to the teaching process. The teacher's gestures must be full and emphatic in order to supplement rather than detract from teaching. An erect posture and commanding attitude give the learners the idea that the teacher is thoroughly capable of handling the teaching situation.

Speech and Voice

A good teacher must know how to make language work for it is through the medium of language that he transmits most of the knowledge he teaches. Unless the student understands the teacher, there is little or no learning; therefore, the teacher should use simple terms and speak correct and understandable English.

PART I

COURSE PLANNING AND SUBJECT ANALYSIS

The two major considerations in instruction are "What to Teach" and "How to Teach".

This unit will provide the teacher-aide information on how the teacher analyzes and organizes the course or subject in such a manner that instruction will be easier and more effective.

The first thing a person should do when selected as a teacher is prepare and organize the course, lesson, or lessons which he is going to teach. This means he will have to determine what is to be taught. Planning is necessary when there is a job to be done. This applies to the job of teaching as well as any other job. A teacher should never attempt to teach without first having a definite plan whereby he may direct his teaching.

There are two types of planning essential to good teaching:

1. Course planning

2. Lesson planning

Course planning may be compared to the work of the architect in planning the construction of a building, while lesson planning may be compared to the day to day planning which the construction foreman does. Both are important.

In order to do this, the teacher must make an analysis of each subject or plan the activities of each course which is to be taught. This is necessary in order to determine its content, the different skills, ideas, and concepts the learner must acquire and the information necessary to perform these skills, ideas, or concepts. If this analysis is not made, important skills, ideas, and concepts will be overlooked, and the teaching job will not be done efficiently.

Analyze the Course or Subject by Divisions

All subjects seem to divide themselves naturally into different types of work or divisions. To assist you in breaking down your subject or course into its major divisions, the following approaches are listed:

1. Division of subject on the basis of skills.

2. Division of subject on the basis of material or equipment needed.

3. Division of the subject based on the type of information needed.

4. Division of the subject on the type of concept desired.

5. Division of the subject based on basic processes involved.

Regardless of the basis selected, the first step in making a subject analysis is to prepare a list of the major divisions of the course. In making an analysis the teacher will want to sub-divide the major divisions into smaller units.

As an example of the division listings, one might suppose the course of arithmetic is to be taught.

Major Divisions of Arithmetic

1. Whole numbers
2. Fractions
3. Decimals

Major Divisions of Arithmetic

4. Addition
5. Subtraction
6. Multiplication
7. Division
8. Percentage
9. Shapes of Objects
10. Measurements
11. Scales
12. Formulas
13. Charts
14. Circles
15. Triangles
16. Areas
17. Volume
18. Symbols
19. Tables

After the teacher has listed the major divisions of a subject, he should sub-divide each division into smaller units to be accomplished. Unit six (6), Multiplication is used as an illustration.

Unit Six: Multiplication:

1. Multiplication tables
2. Whole numbers
3. Fractions, proper
4. Fractions, improper
5. Decimals
6. Mixed numbers
7. Symbols
8. Percentage
9. Area
10. Cubic
11. Volume

When the teacher has completed the sub-divisions of each unit, he is then ready to list the operations to be done and the information to be learned.

As an example Sub-Unit Three (3) Proper Fractions (6), is used. The teacher lists all the skills and knowledge the student will need to be able to multiply proper fractions so he will acquire an understanding of the processes involved. When all the major units have been listed and all the units sub-divided into operations and information listed under each sub-unit, the teacher is then ready to start preparing lessons for teaching.

PART II

PLANNING THE LESSON

Unit One dealt with the procedures that the teacher follows in breaking down her course or subject into major divisions. The listing of divisions of the course is called a Course Outline.

In order to make the course outline into a course of study, the teacher must sub-divide the major divisions and break these sub-divisions down into concepts, activities, ideas, and information.

From this grouping of course content or course of study the teacher will plan her daily lessons. There are several items to think about or consider in preparing the lesson. Some of these are:

1. What should be included in the lesson?
2. How long should the lesson be?
3. How many objectives should be in the lesson?
4. What items of information should be included?

In deciding what should be included in the lesson, the teacher should keep these suggestions in mind.

1. List the objectives which she wishes to have the students accomplish during the lesson.
    a. If there are too few objectives the lesson is probably too short.
    b. If there are too many objectives the lesson is probably too long.
2. A good lesson should cover a few of the key points or a short review of the previous lesson.
3. Another factor to consider is the amount of time it will take to present the information. A demonstration or a theory lesson which takes thirty minutes or longer is usually too long. The length of a class period and the length of a lesson do not need to coincide. The teacher may have two or more lessons in a given class period.

Method of Teaching

In preparing to teach the lesson, some consideration should be given to the method to be used. The following is an analysis of the various methods used in teaching.

1. Demonstration: Show how by actually doing the activity with real tools and equipment.

Advantages of the Demonstration:

1. Learner sees as well as hears.
2. More interesting.
3. Student gets the real feel of the activity.

4. Visual proof that it works.
5. Easy to test results of teaching.

Disadvantages of the Demonstration:

1. More expensive
2. Depends of the availability of equipment and materials.
3. Confined to small groups for best results.

2. Illustration: Show by use of pictures, diagrams, graphs, drawings, models, movies, or blueprints. (Showing method not using actual materials)

Advantages of Illustration:

1. Make use of the sense of seeing as well as hearing.
2. May show in detail more than actual object.
3. Can explore larger fields of work.
4. Less expensive.
5. Makes available information which could not be demonstrated.

Disadvantages of Illustration:

1. May not be able to get the film when needed.
2. Will not be able to get the feel of the activity.
3. Limited to the ability of the teacher to secure or make good illustrations.

3. Lecture: Telling or giving information. (One way method)

Advantages of the Lecture:

1. Faster.
2. Less expensive.
3. Can build up sequence of presentation
4. Handle large groups.
5. Not so much material needed.
6. May be used along with other methods.

Disadvantages of the Lecture:

1. Learner cannot absorb all information.
2. More apt to prove tiresome to the group.
3. The teacher not able to check on whether the learner is following.
4. Does not provide for enough class participation.
5. May not stimulate thinking.
6. Dependent on the teacher's personality, speech, and ability to express himself.

4. Written Instruction: Written matter placed in the hands of the student.

Advantages of the Written Instruction:

1. Enables student to prepare for discussion.
2. Students can proceed at own rate of speed.
3. Provides good follow-up.
4. Good guide for other methods.
5. Enriches the instruction.
6. Valuable as a review to cinch information.
7. Intensifies interests.

Disadvantages of the Written Instruction:

1. Chance of misunderstanding.
2. Instructor may lean on written material too much.
3. Less interesting.
4. Chance of inadequate material.
5. Lack of interest in reading on part of the student.
6. Chance of confusion as to the meaning of what is read.
7. More work on the teacher.

5. Conference: The two way method.

A. Teacher serves as a leader or chairman.

B. Provokes discussion by use of skillful questions.

C. Exchange of ideas

D. Pooling of information and experiences.

Advantages of the Conference:

1. Utilized experiences of the group.
2. More interesting.
3. Promotes deeper thinking.
4. Raises level of all members of the group.
5. Provides for maximum group participation.
6. Brings out new ideas.
7. Teacher may know whether idea has been put over.
8. May analyze situation.
9. Focusing thought toward the solution of a problem.

Disadvantages of the Conference:

1. Slow method.
2. Easy to vary from the subject.
3. Limited to average group.
4. Requires a skilled leader.
5. May be difficult to handle.
6. Limited to the experienced or older students.

The method or methods employed by the teacher depend on the nature of the thing to be taught and the type of learner involved. For example: The demonstration method should be employed where possible in teaching manipulative processes, although other methods may be used in connection with it. It should be remembered that you seldon teach by one method, but rather a combination of methods.

What is a Lesson?

In teaching, a lesson is often confused with a class period. Anyone making a careful analysis of a lesson will soon discover that the content to be taught, the problem or the activity under consideration rather than time, determines the lesson.

A lesson is a unit of instruction-a teaching operation centered around some unit of information or a concept. A class period is a definite length of time.

The beginning teacher invariably makes the mistake of including too much in a lesson. As a result she aims at everything and touches nothing. It takes a small unit or lesson. If the unit is large the effective teacher will break it up into smaller units for the purpose of teaching.

In compiling written material for teaching aids, a teacher should prepare these aids in the following manner:

The lesson plans are of two types: A Skill Lesson or an Information Lesson. As a rule the teacher's lesson plan is prepared by the teacher to assist others in learning a given lesson. The lesson plan contains suggested references, aids, methods, and techniques for presenting the lesson according to the best teaching principles.

The skill lesson is determined to guide the student in the step by step procedures necessary to perform the various skills or operations listed in the course outline. They also list the technical knowledge required of the learner so that he may learn more éfficiently.

Another aid in teaching a skill lesson is the student assignment sheet. Assignment sheets are useful in both presenting new information to the learner or in permitting him to apply the skills and knowledge he has received from the skill lesson.

A list of visual aids which pertain to a particular lesson should be catalogued and filed with each lesson plan.

Other aids such as industrial trips or speakers planned and scheduled for a particular assignment are also useful.

A progress chart is a record in its simplest form. It is a list of those skills or activities to be mastered. The list is taken from the course outline. The function of a progress chart is to assist both the teacher and student in checking progress through the course and in guiding the teacher in making individual lesson assignments.

For information lessons an information sheet may be used to introduce new material to prepare the learner for the new lesson coming up.

Organization of Lessons for Daily Teaching:

After the content of a lesson has been decided upon, the teacher should decide and make definite plans for teaching the lesson. It is well for the beginning teacher to use the four step method in this lesson planning.

These steps are:

1. The Preparation Step.
2. The Presentation Step.
3. The Application Step.
4. The Testing or Measuring Step.

The Preparation Step--This step is composed of:

1. The preparation of the teacher in planning and making assignments to teach the lesson. This will include everything the teacher needs to do before the class begins.

2. The second part is to prepare the student to absorb the skill or information. This step is sometimes called the introduction. This is necessary in order to get the student ready to learn. We sometimes call this motivation.

The Presentation Step--During this step the teacher shows the learner how to perform the skill in which he is being instructed, or makes clear to the student the facts, ideas, and relationships which the learner seeks to understand. The teacher must present all of the information necessary for the learner to be able to perform the skill or understand how to use the information which has been presented.

The Application Step--It is the stage of learning where the student attempts to apply what has been demonstrated to him by the teacher in the preparation step. The application step is the first point in the lesson where the learner has an opportunity to try out for himself or to put into use the things he has been shown or told in the presentation step. It is of utmost importance that when the student goes through the application step for the first time that he does it exactly as the teacher has shown or told him. The first impression is the lasting impression.

The Testing Step--The purpose of this step is to help both the learner and the teacher determine whether the objectives of the lesson have been achieved.

Characteristics of a Good Lesson Plan

1. Achieves the lesson objectives within a definite time.

2. Must be fitted to the learner.

3. It must be on the level of the learner if this is to come about.

4. Cares for all possible conditions that may be met in its teaching.

5. Makes the lesson easier to teach.

6. Should carry forward the previous lesson and prepare the learner. for the succeeding one.

7. Should promote definite thinking and exactness of action.

8. Should permit deviation in that it will lead to the lesson aim despite any condition that might arise.

9. Should prevent over-developing of side issues.

10. Should use standard and acceptable teaching processes and methods.

A short reveiw of the two types of lessons will be in order at this time. Remember the skill lesson is to be used when when manipulative ability is involved. This is best done by allowing the student to have opportunities to put into practice what he has just learned. The information lesson will be of more concern or will be used more times. Therefore, the teacher needs to go through it a little better.

The information lesson is also prepared by the teacher to aid the learner in receiving the desired information or concept of knowledge that the teacher wishes the student to comprehend. The teacher may do this by using assignment sheets or outside activities in gaining information in the area being discussed. The teacher may give this information to the student by the use of an information sheet which presents to him the necessary information to be able to either perform the activity or promote motivation by encouraging him to become interested in the activity before the lesson begins.

Visual aids are very important. Remember, a learner only retains 13% of what he hears; yet he receives 75% of his information through sight. If the teacher can combine these two, he has an opportunity of presenting 88% of what he hopes the student will get. The teacher can use other miscellaneous aids such as an industrial trip. Students will long remember any trip that they might take outside of school, and this is also used as a motivating force for in-school activity. Outside speakers coming in to talk to the students about a certain area will also encourage them in wanting to learn in an area.

The progress chart is another type of visual aid where the students can see the types of activities that they have been through and the types of activities that they are yet to learn. Some will be motivated to study ahead or to look up outside references and so on; so that when this material is presented they will be ready for it. Anything that will help the teacher to motivate the student to learn and to receive the information listed in the course outline should be used.

PART III

TESTING

Generally speaking, the testing program used by most teachers is the weakest point in the over-all instructional program.

The basic purpose of testing is to assure the learner, as well as the teacher, that mastery of the present lesson has been accomplished and that the learner is ready to proceed to the next unit of learning.

When a teacher uses the four step method of teaching, which consists of: 1. Preparation 2. Presentation 3. Application 4. Testing, the degree of accomplishment of the lesson content can well be determined. If the testing step is not used, then the demonstration of whether the student has mastered the content of the lesson will be guess work by the teacher, and it will be hard to keep attitudes and personal feelings out in the grading of a student's work.

1. The Test as a Pre-teaching Device.

A test can be used as a pre-teaching device to determine the level at which a learner should begin work in this area. It will help to determine the objectives we wish to obtain in the lesson we will present in this area. In a well-planned course consisting of a series of well-planned lessons, the tests which have been devised as the final step of each lesson will prove to be very useful in finding this starting level of instruction. The new teacher can be given the test on the most advanced lesson in which he believes himself competent. The results will quickly tell the learner and the teacher whether the next lesson in the series is the best place to begin. If the student has over or under estimated his own ability, such a test will suggest approximately which lesson in the series should be suitable for a beginning. It is far better to give several short tests than one long one. It is better to test after each lesson than after each unit.

2. The Test Used to Diagnose Learning Difficulties.

The test can be made to discover the particular phases of a lesson content in which the learner is weak and needs additional or special help. This is where we can discover why learning has not resulted from a learning experience for a student. A good test will make clear to the learner as well as the instructor where the points of weaknesses are. This will make the teacher's suggestions for overcoming the weak points more acceptable to the learner.

3. Tests as a Means of Teaching Success.

Tests can be used to inform the teacher how successful he has been in the first three steps of the lesson. Every test is as much a measure of the teacher's skill as it is of the student's accomplishment. Instruction can only be improved if the points at which it has failed are clearly recognized by the teacher. If a test shows that a considerable number of students are weak in one or more phases of a particular lesson, it is clear that the teacher needs to examine carefully the method he has used to present these phases and the method used to provide practice in their use.

4. Tests as Standards of Achievement.

Tests should not be something to be kept secret until certain stages in the course. Then suddenly it is presented as a challenge, if not as an obstacle which the pupil must successfully negotiate if he is to continue in the course or be promoted.

The student should be informed early in each lesson what the standard of achievement is to be for that lesson. In the skill lesson, he should know before the lesson is completed exactly what skill he is expected to display. He should know that the test will consist of nothing more than a demonstration, on his part, of these kinds and this degree of skill, performed under favorable working conditions and without assistance from others. He should know the kind of information, concepts, ideas, and knowledge he will be expected to know. These should be stated as objectives in each lesson before it is presented.

5. Tests Used for the Purpose of Rating.

   Tests which are well-planned and carefully constructed enable a teacher to rate a learner accurately when rating is called for. They assure both the instructor and the learner that the appraisal of the work of the learner has been as fair and impartial as possible. So long as schools require that marks be assigned at certain intervals and that grades be given at the conclusion of courses, and so long as importance is attached to these grades for purposes of grading and for other recommendations, the rating of the learner will remain a serious duty of the teacher. If such ratings are to be fair and unbiased and are to represent to others a measure of the learner's accomplishment, which will often be interpreted as a measure of his capacity, the measuring must be as accurate as possible.

6. The Test as a Teaching Device.

   Tests can be used as a means of assisting the learner to improve his skill and understanding. The chief value of a test, for this purpose, lies in the possibility of having the learner discover, as a result of his performance in the test, the points at which he is not yet proficient, or at which his understanding is not complete.

   If the work which the learner has done in a test is not discussed with him after the test has been scored, the teaching value of the test is lost. If he is advised only of the score which he has made and has no opportunity to know about the particular mistakes which occured in his work, he cannot profit from the test as a means of improving his work. It is important, therefore, to go over the results of every test with the group or with learners individually.

PART IV

SUMMARY

A Short Conclusion in Selecting the Lesson Content

There are a few desirable rules which will guide the teacher as he attempts to decide exactly what to include in a given lesson and what to leave for another lesson:

1. As a beginning toward preparing the content of a single lesson, write down the objectives of the lesson. These are short sentences listing what the teacher plans to have the learner accomplish in the lesson. As these objectives are written, they should all pertain to the same general skill process or to the same general topic. If some objectives do not fit into the same topics as the others, the lesson will lack unity. A lesson lacking unity scatters the thinking of the learner and confuses him.

Material for a lesson should be chosen and revised until the objectives which describe it indicate unity in the lesson.

2. If more than four or five closely related objectives are required to describe what the lesson is to include, it is probable that the lesson will be too long. In this case, the lesson should be shortened by reducing the number of objectives, leaving some of the material for another lesson. When a lesson is too long there are too many new elements to be learned.

   The learner, completing a lesson, should have a sense of having made a definite amount of progress. It is from this that he derives satisfaction in his accomplishment. If the lesson takes too long to complete, this satisfaction is lost sight of and interest wains. The number of new concepts or skills to be included will also depend upon the general ability, intelligence, and maturity of the learner. Slow students can deal successfully with only a few new ideas at a time.

3. Another measure of the amount of material to include in one lesson is the amount of time which will be required to demonstrate the skills or present the information. A demonstration or a theory lesson which takes as long as thirty minutes to present is usually too long.

4. If only one or two objectives will serve to cover the lesson content, the lesson may be too short for some learners. It will fail to maintain the learner's interest. There may not be enough new ideas or enough for him to do in completing it to make the lesson seem worthwhile.

5. A good lesson begins with some of the key points covered in the previous lessons and leads into new elements which have not been covered before. All lessons except review lessons should contain some new elements, skills, or ideas.

6. As we proceed to study lesson planning, we shall find that a lesson should conclude with a test or some other means by which the learner can measure his accomplishment. The teacher feeds the material of the course to the learner by offering one bite, that is a lesson, at a time. It is necessary that one bit be digested before the next is offered. Both pupil and teacher should be sure that the digestion is complete, that is that the material of the lesson has been mastered by the pupil. This can only be determined by testing. It is important, therefore, that whatever the teacher selects for inclusion of a lesson should be teachable and testable. If should be possible to construct a test which will quickly show whether the learner has fully achieved the objectives of the lesson. If the lesson content does not fit well into such a test, it is probably poorly chosen.

"LEARNING STARTS WITH WHAT THE LEARNER KNOWS, NOT WITH WHAT THE TEACHER KNOWS."

Teaching is essentially helping others to learn. Teachers, however, are professional people who make the best use of the psychological principles of learning as well as the accepted experiences of leaders of education over the years. As professional teachers, they should realize the grave responsibility teaching imposes upon them, especially since the students are, for the most part immature. Learning is work; it is the teachers' tasks to make it as pleasant and as meaningful as possible.

Teachers must recognize the part education plays in the total process of learning. The teacher must be aware of the influence he wields over his students. He must learn and remember the principles of learning, the importance of the five senses in learning, and the ways in which the student learns. The teacher must constantly seek the best and most effective means of teaching skills, attitudes, concepts, activities or general information if she is to be successful.

"REMEMBER, IF THE STUDENT HASN'T LEARNED, THE TEACHER HASN'T TAUGHT."

"Every new movement or manifestation of human activity, when unfamiliar to people's mind, is sure to be misrepresented and misunderstood."
Edward Carpenter

LESSON VI

TEACHER AND TEACHER-AIDE RELATIONSHIPS

A. Description of Lesson:

Lesson VI attempts to identify the factors that influence relationships between people. Of particular importance to teacher-aides is the outlined section on how they can profit from criticism. Problems involving teacher-aides are presented for consideration. Various responsibilities of teachers and teacher-aides are also outlined in the lesson.

B. Purposes of Lesson:

(1) To create an atmosphere of good working relationships between teachers and teacher-aides.

(2) To present the role of criticism in continuous improvement of job skills.

(3) To outline the common problems of teacher-aides.

(4) To discuss the responsibilities of teachers in the working relationships.

(5) To discuss the responsibilities of teacher-aides in the working relationships.

C. Assignment of Personnel: (Is applicable only if a director is assigned to conduct regularly scheduled training sessions.)

Teachers and administrators should attend this session both as participants and part of the audience. Three teachers and three teacher-aides should be chosen to present a panel discussion on effective human relationships. The persons selected should be chosen because of their demonstrated ability to work effectively with other persons. An outside consultant who is an expert on human relationships would be helpful in this most crucial part of the teacher-aide program.

D. Materials Needed:

The inventory which is provided at the end of this lesson would be very helpful in gaining insights about the way people feel about the school organization in which they are working. The inventory should be sent out to teachers and teacher-aides well in advance of the session in which this lesson will be discussed. In this way, the inventory results will be available at the time the lesson is discussed.

E. Content of Lesson:

The wisdom for understanding and working with others in order to accomplish the most good and the least harm comes from self-examination of the many factors affecting what persons do and how and why they do it. Working effectively with individuals is not achieved through study alone, however, the attitudes of oneself and others is not sufficient unless the knowledge gained is put into practice. It is from the continous contacts with others that a great deal can be learned about getting along with people. The teacher must first know how he behaves with others and how he assesses his own strengths and weaknesses, successes and failures before he can determine the kinds of skills he will be able to develop when working with teacher-aides.

The academic preparation and background of teacher-aides may have some common elements, such as the approximate years of schooling, social-economic background, and personal interests. These common elements, however, vary in degree and kind. There are no universal guidelines in their preparation and there is a wide range in the selection criteria used by school systems to select teacher-aides. Additionally, there are wide differences in the quality of their work assignments, in salaries, and in the pre-service and in-service training provided the teacher-aides. These differences bring a group of people together as teacher-aides who differ greatly in personal characteristics. Understanding the varied characteristics of teacher-aides in each school setting is of utmost importance to the professional staff in developing a functional teacher-aide program in their schools. The professional staff must take into consideration the educational and work backgrounds of the teacher-aides, their social-economic status, the reasons they have sought employment as a teacher-aide, the ways in which they approach their work assignments, the means by which motives may be redirected or behavior changed, and the directions which in-service training programs must take.

As director of the efforts of others, an important task of the teacher is getting things done effectively with and through others. An essential tool toward accomplishing this task is the utilization of communication media, whether auditory, written, or visual. Although it is hoped that the teacher-aides will fully understand the intent behind the communication, teachers must recognize that the teacher-aides' assumptions, points of view, and feelings are apt to affect the responses to any message coming from teachers.

Restricted communications may lead to mistrust, misunderstanding, and conflict between teachers and teacher-aides as well as among other individuals in the school. Factors, such as the following hamper good communications:

1. Information flows only in and among the professional staff.
2. Communications are directed downward only which does not permit teacher-aides to share in a free interchange of ideas.
3. Communications depend upon who gives them.

The teacher shows by his actions that he respects the opinions of others. In those areas where he is responsible for final action, he makes his position clear. In employing communication processes, the teacher encourages freedom of expression by teacher-aides as individuals or in groups.

Good human relationships in the school involve teacher-aides as well as the professional staff. Good relationships are necessary to successful working conditions between the two groups. To aid teacher-aides in the understanding of their role in human relationships, the following questions have been devised to focus attention on vital factors that influence how people get along together:

1. Do I in some manner relate to other persons that I am trustworthy, dependable, and consistent in my actions and deeds?
2. Am I able to communicate with people in an understanding manner?
3. Do I express positive characteristics (warmth, caring, liking, interest, respect) for other people with whom I communicate?
4. Am I able to express my own feelings as something belonging to me and separate from the other person's feelings?
5. Am I able to see things as the other person does?
6. Am I secure enough of an individual to permit him to be what he is without being critical of what he is?
7. Am I able to communicate with the individual without judging his usefulness in the school setting?

Inherent characteristics may set certain limits on the extent to which any given person can become effective in his working relationships with others. It is possible, however, to present some attributes that contribute to effective relationships:

1. Be natural--being artificial and a phony detract.
2. Be modest.
3. Be human.
4. Be courteous.
5. Be helpful, but do not give advice where it is not solicited.
6. Be interesting.
7. Avoid conversation which is primarily gossip.
8. Practice the Golden Rule.

Each school system has a certain uniqueness of its own which makes it difficult to develop a set of rules which will work in all situations. Sufficient evidence has been gained that gives some rather reliable clues to what makes up a desirable environment for effective working relationships, and these clues are adaptable to the teacher-teacher-aide relationships. A discussion of these clues follows.

Commonality of Purpose and Interest:

People work more intensely when they see the purpose in what they are doing and they work more cooperatively when they share purposes and interests. The relationship between "caring" and "sharing" is a basic element in working relationships between teachers and teacher-aides. Additionally, people accept and promote those things to which they attach value. Suspicion and distrust create petty jealousies which disrupt the working relationships.

Effective Communications:

People must be able to discuss issues if intelligent decisions are to be transmitted into action. If the ideas produced by the teacher are to carry meaning to the teacher-aides, certain common denominators of background experiences are necessary to insure that the teacher-aide understands precisely what the teacher is saying. Throughout the school system, information is transmitted which is needed by the staff members in the satisfactory completion of their jobs. It is through communications that staff members share and pool ideas and opinions in order to make intelligent decisions.

Provisions for Staff Security:

Comfortable and secure individuals generally make the more effective producers. Efforts of the professional staff to maintain a feeling of security among the teacher-aides often result in more fruitful performances. It is important that teacher-aides have their efforts recognized. Teachers may make contributions to the security of teacher-aides through friendly gestures and personal guidance. The social and emotional atmosphere in the school may be a determining factor in whether the teacher-aides really put forth their best.

Means for Decision-Making:

The manner in which decisions are made in the school has a bearing on the professional-non-professional relationships. If all staff members have a voice in matters affecting them, they are more inclined to support them wholeheartedly. It is extremely important to teachers and teacher-aides involved in decision-making and in policy development.

Concern for Ethics:

Underlying the effective human relationships between all members of the school's staff is a deep sense of moral justice and respect for ethical considerations. Without basic ideals, the staff members experience difficulty in adjusting to the threatening circumstances that arise from day to day in the school. Both the individual's personal philosophy of ethics and adherence to ethics of the group are essential to guide and stablilize the interactions of people if they are to work together harmoniously.

An important attitude for teacher-aides to have toward the job is willingness to assume new or greater responsibilities. It is important that they believe that they can meet the challenge of some more difficult or important task. As is the case with much of the work in the world, much of the work in the school setting is made up of routine. But the routine in school provides many opportunities for new challenges from day to day thereby bringing new interests and new incentives into the job. Dealing mainly with human beings, teacher-aides are dealing with new situations and new problems that are constantly arising which have not been foreseen and which call for increased effort and intelligance in their solutions. Teacher-aides may either resent these things as interruptions to their work schedule or they can welcome them as challenges to their resourcefulness and adaptability.

How the Teacher-Aide May Profit from Criticism

The following ideas should be helpful when hearing criticism from teachers and the other members of the professional staff:

1. Anticipate criticism and welcome it as a contribution. Take a positive attitude toward advice and profit from it. Accept criticism without permitting your feelings to be upset.
2. Realize that there are many things you don't know which means that there is much to be learned.
3. Evaluate and analyze your own strengths and weaknesses.
4. Defense mechanisms will not solve your mistakes.
5. Do not argue in defense of your position.
6. Profit from your mistakes--do not make the same ones over and over.
7. Use judgment in interpreting criticisms.
8. A good sense of humor helps.
9. Assume that the teacher is trying to assist you in developing procedures and techniques.

Tips for the Teacher in Working with Teacher-Aides:

1. Respect the feelings of the teacher-aides.
2. Let the teacher-aide explain and if there is a mistake, she will probably recognize it.
3. Be direct and frank in working with the teacher-aide--be completely honest with her.

4. Have a friendly attitude toward the teacher-aide--remember that looks and the tone of voice are often times more damaging than the spoken word.

5. Emphasize the positive--but avoid artificial praise.

6. Use private conferences to talk to the aide about the quality of her work and other personal matters.

7. Criticize the teacher-aide--but do not condemn her.

8. Show the teacher-aide what and how to do her work.

9. Do not criticize the teacher-aide beyond her abilities to do the work.

10. Encourage the teacher-aide to ask questions and seek advice.

11. Share authority and responsibility with the teacher-aide--but do not give professional and legal responsibilities that should remain with the teacher.

12. Solicit and respect the opinions of the teacher-aide.

13. Look for opportunities to help the teacher-aide.

14. Be content to let teacher-aide grow in her job slowly.

15. Substitute "we" for "me".

16. Build good morals

17. Do not shift the blame--either accept it or share it.

18. Do not make commitments for the teacher-aide without consulting her.

19. Keep your promises and discharge your responsibilities promptly and faithfully--you must expect the teacher-aide to carry out her duties in the same fashion that you do.

20. Do not claim or accept credit that is due the teacher-aide.

21. Do not call attention to your personal problems and troubles--everyone has his own and few individuals seek help from those who cannot solve their own problems.

22. Improve your skills in human relationships--it's a lifetime job but it pays dividends.

23. "Put yourself in the teacher-aides' shoes," and understand her point of view.

24. Remember that you and the teacher-aides must work as a team.

Directions for the Teacher-Aide:

When the time arrives for a teacher-aide to begin a work-experience, it should be thought of as being rewarding and pleasurable. To achieve these goals, however, the teacher-aide must become dedicated to the task at hand and accept the challenges which will be present as he or she progresses toward the complete fulfillment of each assigned task. Perhaps, the proverb "Let no stone remain untouched," best describes the efforts required from a teacher-aide who hopes to be highly successful in the job.

Teacher-aides are normally assigned to work with teachers who have expressed an interest and willingness to participate in the teacher-aide program. Many teachers have had previous experiences with teacher-aides. Teacher-aide experiences will become enjoyable and valuable to a person as he has opportunities to share in the responsibilities in the classroom and in the school. These opportunities are the teacher-aide's to earn however, as he demonstrates competencies to teachers.

Common Problems of Teacher-Aides

It is important that every teacher-aide does not take the attitude that it cannot happen to me; rather, a careful understanding of the mistakes and continous self-evaluation of progress become the greatest assurances that the teacher-aide will indeed avoid commom problems in the work experiences. A representative list of common problems follow:

1. Little idiosyncrasies and mannerisms are developed which detract from the work at hand.

2. Completion of assigned tasks may be neglected until the last moment.

3. Materials placed on the chalkboard or prepared in other ways may be ineffectual on account of carelessness in writing and drawing.

4. The teacher-aide fails to take into consideration the physical comfort of the room--temperature, ventilation, lighting.

5. While not approving of sarcasm, the teacher-aide may be using it in devastating fashion without awareness to his or her actions.

6. The teacher-aide fails to demonstrate a cooperative attitude toward the professional staff.

7. The teacher-aide tends to lose control of his or her temper and fails to see that in the long run courtesy is best.

8. The teacher-aide may proceed without having her work-plans approved by the professional staff member responsible.

9. The teacher-aide allows himself or herself to be side-tracked by irrelevant activities.

10. The teacher-aide is not dependable and/or punctual.

11. The teacher-aide does not report in when he or she is going to be absent.

12. The teacher-aide cannot follow through with the assigned work.

13. The teacher-aide cannot understand and follow directions.

14. The teacher-aide always has to tell her best friend everything.

15. The teacher-aide wants to repeat everything she hears.

16. The teacher-aide over-estimates his or her importance.

17. The teacher-aide attempts to take over for the teachers.

18. The teacher-aide does not realize that authority involves responsibility.

19. The teacher-aide makes promises to parents without first checking with members of the professional staff.

20. The teacher-aide gives medication to children without checking with a member of the professional staff.

21. The teacher-aide punishes a child..

22. The teacher-aide criticizes other teacher-aides, teachers and other school personnel.

Responsibilities of Teacher-Aides

1. The teacher-aide shall know and practice good professional ethics including respect for confidential information given to him or her.

2. The teacher-aide shall exemplify at all times to the best of his or her ability those aspects of work relationships that will bring credit to all concerned.

3. The teacher-aides are expected to be present everyday; making arrangements for time-off in the same manner used by teachers.

4. The teacher-aides will respect the teachers as being experienced, professional, and capable of guiding their work experiences and they will cheerfully accept suggestions for improvement.

5. The teacher-aide will keep in confidence that information which pertains to school, school personnel, and pupils.

6. The teacher-aides will dress appropriately and be neat in appearance.

7. Teacher-aides will be well groomed--remembering that no one likes an offender.

8. The teacher-aides will be prepared to demonstrate a designated level of proficiency in all work experiences that they seek.

9. The teacher-aide will welcome all opportunities available for conferences with the professional staff.

10. The teacher-aides will demonstrate a willingness to support the premise that the public schools are dedicated first and foremost to the well being of the pupils in attendance.

11. The teacher-aide will be prompt and efficient in carrying out assigned tasks.

Responsibilities of Teachers

1. The teacher is in the key position in determining the real success or failure of the teacher-aides' work experiences; which demands a conscious effort to provide the best possible examples of a truly professional teacher.

2. The teacher has the best opportunity to show the teacher-aides the importance of the mastery of subject matter and to demonstrate the value, limitations, and adaptations of a variety of teaching methods in specific situations.

3. The teacher should provide an atmosphere of emotional security and stability for the teacher-aides.

4. The teacher can show the importance of self-improvement in successful work experiences.

5. The teacher can do much to help the teacher-aides acquire poise in establishing effective working and personal relationships with teachers, administrators, parents and students.

6. The teacher may guide teacher-aides in understanding that subject matter gains importance only as it helps to change the lives of young people.

7. The teacher should accept teacher-aides in a manner which is dignified and effective in establishing leadership status.

8. The teacher should give frank and helpful criticisms to teacher-aides whenever they are needed.

9. The teacher must hold a philosophy of educational discipline and classroom control which demonstrates to the teacher-aides that his actions are the meaningful and correct approaches to children's problems.

10. The teacher should adjust the structure of his class to continue either direct or indirect influence of pupils as he is needed.

11. The teacher must realize that teacher-aides may be handicapped by odd hair-do's, distracting mannerisms, or exposed lack of confidence. They may deviate from the norms established by the teacher by reasons of race, size, dialect, voice or social custom.

What Orientation to Work Experiences Should Teachers Provide Teacher-Aides?

1. The teacher-aides should be orientated to the school facilities and equipment, such as the gymnasium, lunchroom, duplicating machines and audio-visual materials and equipment.

2. Arrangements should be made for the supplies and materials that the teacher-aides will need in their work.

3. Administrative policies and procedures should be defined clearly to the teacher-aides since they are expected to adhere to them.

4. The teacher-aides should be given seating charts of classrooms to which they are assigned so that they may learn the names of children quickly.

5. The philosophy of education and recommended educational practices of the school should be pointed-up to the teacher-aides so that they may become more effective in their work and in interpreting the role of the schools to school patrons.

6. Many of the day by day tasks in the school and the classrooms are handled routinely and they may go unnoticed unless they are pointed out to the teacher-aides.

7. The teacher should give background information about himself or herself to the teacher-aides.

8. The teacher should provide teacher-aides with her background information on the community; so that the teacher-aides may gain a better understanding of the school problems, practices, and curriculum as well as gaining information about the pupils as viewed by the teachers.

9. The teacher should orientate the teacher-aides to the school's policies on grading and reporting pupil progress.

10. The teacher should orientate the teacher-aides to the reference books and other library materials used in the school.

11. The teacher should provide teacher-aides with an overview of all learning that has taken place in the classroom prior to their arrival; or if at the beginning of the school year, give an overview of the school year ahead.

12. The teacher should talk over the inside-the-class and outside-the-class responsibilities of teacher-aides.

"Americans must not sit down contented with their position among the industrial nations. We have inherited civil liberty, social mobility, and immense native resources. We appreciate that true progress in this country means progress for the world. In organizing new education, we do not labor for ourselves alone. Freedom will be glorified in her works" Charles W. Eliot

LESSON VII

INTRODUCTION TO SECONDARY EDUCATION

A. Description of Lesson:

This lesson provides an overview of the role of secondary education in an American democracy. Controversial issues are presented for discussion relative to how they have affected education in the secondary school. The responsibilities of teacher-aides assigned to secondary schools are outlined.

B. Purposes of the Lesson:

(1) To present significant issues confronting educators involved in secondary education.

(2) To develop goals and objectives of the comprehensive high school.

(3) To establish the need for expanding the roles of the secondary schools.

(4) To outline the duties of teacher-aides assigned to secondary schools.

C. Assignment of Personnel: (Is applicable only if a director is assigned to conduct regularly scheduled training sessions)

Teachers and administrators should attend both as participants and as part of the audience. A panel of secondary school teachers should present a discussion which deals with the stated objectives of this lesson. The content of Lesson VII and the reference materials listed at the end of the lesson will provide the panel members with sufficient background information. Teacher-aides should then have opportunities to participate in a question-answer discussion at the conclusion of the formal presentation.

D. Materials Needed:

The panel members may wish to use audio-visual materials to present their material. There is an unlimited supply of commercial films and filmstrips available to present current viewpoints about the role of the secondary school in our society; and panel members are encouraged to prepare their own displays, such as transparencies.

E. Content of Lesson:

Any investigation of the secondary school system of this country soon reveals one absolute to the researcher--disagreement prevails concerning every important facet of it. If the beginner will bear this principle in mind, he may be spared some anxiety when he finds that the conceptions he has acquired have not yet been carved in stone. A discussion of few of the most significant issues facing secondary education follows.

1. Shall secondary education be provided at public expense for all normal individuals or for only a limited number?

Today, this question has been fairly well resolved in favor of providing education for all. There are, however, still many critics who do not agree. They are not sure that all students can benefit from education beyond the elementary level. And, perhaps more important, they are not anxious to pay the cost of such education, especially for those who do not pay much taxes themselves. Probably the more significant issue today is the one brought up by those who not only favor education for all through grade twelve, but maintain that education for the following two years should be available as well.

2. What shall be the relative emphasis given to general versus vocational education in the program of secondary education?

Before the 1920's, secondary schools designed their curriculum to serve as college preparatory courses. The classic liberal arts program was required by all. Those seeking vocational training were expected to find it outside of the public schools. Today, the place of vocational training in the secondary schools is pretty well accepted. There is, however, a great deal of disagreement as to how much vocational should be required and who should take it. The same argument prevails concerning general education. The so-called life adjustment educators maintain that the student needs an IQ of around 110 to successfully follow the college preparatory program, but only about forty per cent can meet that requirement. They maintain, therefore, that the other sixty per cent need to be channelled into courses they can handle and that will provide them with skills that can be used practically. On this basis business arithmetic replaces plane or solid geometry; learning ways to keep physically fit, algebra; simple science of everyday life, geology; simple business English, Chaucer.

Critics of this plan suggest that shunting those with apparent (though not proven) lack of academic ability into a non-academic program blocks their chances of developing academically at an early age; they are taught what to think but not how to think. Richard Hofstadter, a leader of this group, maintains in his book, Anti-Intellectualism in American Life, "Life-adjustment educators would do anything in the name of science except encourage children to study it."

Those who champion the cause of the poor have been especially critical of the use of IQ and achievement tests. They maintain that these are set up to serve the affluent and do not measure the intelligence of the poor because of the difference in home environment. Psychologists tend to support this claim. They have not been able to agree whether an individual's IQ is a permanently fixed genetic quality. They have gathered impressive evidence that shows that an individual IQ, given appropriate training, can often be raised by 15 or 20 points or more. Results have been especially impressive when working with underprivileged children. Many slum children in New York with subnormal or nearly retarded IQ's have had their IQ's and academic performance improved so much through special training that they have been accepted in college, and some have even earned fellowships. No agreement exists, moreover, between psychologists and educators as to the proportion of the students in secondary schools who can profit from an academic curriculum.

3. Shall secondary education seek to adjust youth to prevailing social ideals or shall it seek the reconstruction of society?

This represents perhaps the most controversial question facing all of education today. Certainly, in the past, the school has not served as a center for changing the existing social order. Almost every serious study ever made including Middletown, Elmtown's Youth and the more recent Coleman report has concluded that public schools, especially on the secondary level, have been strongholds of conservatism that have fought to hold the status quo as desired by the affluent of that particular community. The schools have offered the opportunity for advancement for the ambitious and talented, but the opportunity has been provided strictly on conservative terms set up by the community elite.

Teachers have been traditionally pictured as something of a combination of Ichabod Crane and Dagwood Bumstead who have been granted freedom to do one thing - teach the required curriculum. Nowadays, teachers are portrayed as "militant" because they have organized and want to negotiate contracts to set their working conditions and they want to have an active role in determining school policies. Many are concerned that they are encouraging students, especially the poor to revolt against the system. The issue remains an explosive one, and it will continue so into the foreseeable future. This leads to another question.

4. Should the secondary school become the educational center for community and adult activities?

If a school is to function properly, it must involve the community which it serves. Much too often the most significant involvement of school and community occurs as a result of school-sponsored athletic programs, especially at the high school level. Perhaps there is no harm in this as such. But there are far more significant services that could be performed. Especially in small towns and rural areas the high school represents the best-staffed and best-equipped institution to provide educational services for adults. Although many secondary schools have started programs of this nature, many possibilities remain untapped.

Teacher-aides, who usually are selected from the local community, can provide an invaluable liaison between the school and the community. Their familiarity with the local citizens and their social structure can prove a vital source to educators who seek to understand and communicate with the people they must serve. Then too, the teacher-aide can serve as a valuable ally of the professional educators in helping to increase the community's understanding and support for the educational venture.

Under a carefully directed program there should be no problem finding a good deal for the teacher-aide to do. In a study done under the sponsorship of the Ford Foundation by the public schools of Bay City, Michigan, it was revealed that from 21 to 69 per cent of the teacher's time was spent on non-essential tasks. Identifying all of these tasks would prove too cumbersome, but some will be listed to give an idea of what they involve: numerous typing jobs such as tests, letters, work sheets, reports, requests, and forms; duplicating materials on mimeograph or other machines; telephoning for such things as absences, approvals, appointments, and orders; procuring materials such as books, paper, films, projectors, chalk, crayons, paste, thumb tacks, paper clips, etc; supervising a study session while the teacher takes care of other important duties; providing individualized help to exceptional children; helping maintain cleanliness and the proper ventilation and temperature in the classroom or elsewhere in the school; checking attendance and keeping records; holding fund raising campaigns, lunch money, banking, magazine drives; and countless other jobs of this sort.

A good deal of the teacher-aides' duties will involve dealing with youngsters on at least para-professional level. Since it is assumed that the regular classroom teacher will be the prime authority on subject matter, the teacher-aide needs to be especially aware of what the secondary schools are trying to accomplish in combination with academics. The influential Educational Policies Commission came out with a statement of educational purposes in 1938 that still has great influence on secondary educational thinking and practice. Categorized under broad headings, the following objectives were spelled out:

1. The Objectives of Self-Realization
2. The Objectives of Human Realization
3. The Objectives of Economic Efficiency
4. The Objectives of Civic Responsibility

Obviously, these are broad, overlapping goals that evolve out of a variety of activities that can complement each other. The achievement of one purpose is not likely to happen without concurring achievements in other directions. These goals also will be achieved over a long time span with different emphasis at different levels of development. And the best way to help the individual achieve these long-term goals is to assist him to meet his daily problems with successful behavior patterns. If the student can meet his problems positively on a day-to-day basis, it stands to reason that the ultimate goals will be obtained.

The teacher-aide should be aware that these goals are not achieved entirely through reading, discussion, and testing. There will have to occur some human inter-reaction. Here the teacher-aide must be able to set an example of enthusiasm, fairness, interest, and concern that will produce a positive response from the student and help him to attain success. One common fault of a great percentage of teachers, however, is their lack of tolerance for behavior that they feel does not meet acceptable standards. Most teachers have middle class values; reflected in such things as speech, manners, dress, and grooming. Many students do not. The teacher and the teacher-aide both will tend to reject this student. And the student who is being rejected will sense it and in turn reject those who reject him. In a nutshell, perhaps, this explains the reason for dropouts and alienated youth.

This alienation tends to surface at the secondary level. Here the student faces the great problems of adolescence. He soon become aware of his position in the school and the community. If he is less fortunate than most of the others in school, he will be painfully aware of it, and he will quickly recognize those who do not accept him and do not care for his future. Unless he is extremely gifted, he will make more mistakes both academically and socially than most of the other students. Those who direct him must realize that improvement can be made and not emphasize his mistakes, but look upon them as a necessary foundation to begin learning. In other words, learning has to begin somewhere for each individual. If it is not approached on his level of ability, he will fail.

In an adequate system of rewards and correction, therefore, the student must not be constantly pictured as being wrong. Teachers, who tend to be right-answer conscious, might follow the example of Thomas Edison who, after having tested two thousand materials for his light bulb and not having found a useful one, figured that at least he knew two thousand that would not work. If students can feel free to make mistakes, then they are less likely to develop anxiety about being wrong which in turn will work to block learning. If the student sees progress in work that is meaningful and important to him, he will progress. The problem, of course, lies in the fact that his concept of what is significant may differ from that of his teacher's--most teachers would succeed far better if they tried to find out what interested the individual student and used it as a spring-board for learning in academic areas. The teacher-aide should be able to help in this area because most teachers have limited time to deal with individual students and, quite possibly, the teacher-aide will know the student's family and background better.

Testing represents the most common motivational device in education. As has already been indicated, not all testing should be taken at face value because it does not always measure what it claims to. Nevertheless, testing, if anything is enjoying increased popularity in all areas of education. The secondary area, especially relies on testing to grade students, to place students, to group students, to determine whether students should continue their education, to find their occupation and for a wide variety of other purposes ranging from attempts to judge personalities to issuing driver's permits. Somewhat as an aside, it has always seemed strange to this writer that teachers, who use testing to evaluate students in almost every activity possible, are as a group strongly opposed to the use of testing to evaluate teaching performance.

The teacher-aide should have a basic knowledge of testing and how to use it if he is to work effectively with secondary students. His job, though, will consist mainly of typing, giving tests, grading, and recording the test rather than selecting the items or interpreting them. Because of their complexity, both of the latter duties should be reserved for certified teachers or administrators. A basic rule of great importance that all should observe is that comprehensive test scores such as IQ and personality tests should be available only to the child's parents, and again they need to be interpreted by a professional person. The same rule should hold true in regard to report card grades or other comprehensive evaluations of this nature. In general, loose talk about grades, test scores, behavior, family problems, or anything of this nature can not be too strongly condemmed.

If the teacher-aide is designated to type, administer, grade or record a given test, there are, of course, some basic rules to follow. Most of them involve common-sense and a conscientious attitude which good teacher-aides will possess. We might go over a few ideas to suggest some points to follow. When typing a test, it must be done accurately to avoid misreading which could nullify the entire test. Be sure to proof read your material, checking it against the original manuscript carefully. Instructions to the students need to be clearly spelled out. When preparing a test for a teacher, the directions seem to be vague to you, they probably will be vague to the students. Therefore it is wise to contact the teacher and have him reword the directions.

Students should have a few moment to get ready for the test after they enter the room. The teacher should encourage the students to clear their desks and get proper materials of sufficient quantities on top of the desks. After handing out the tests, the teacher should explain the various parts before the students begin. When a student has a question, he should raise his hand and the teacher should go to the student's seat. During these trips, the alert supervisor will be able to note the group's progress or detect irregularities if such exist. Even if there is a clock in the room it is a good idea to write the time on the blackboard at given intervals--say every ten or fifteen minutes. Insist upon silence and order, but try to avoid creating an atmosphere that might rival a public execution. Sharp criticisms and fiery outbursts should be avoided at all costs.

Careful instructions for handing in the tests should be given at the beginning of the session. If this is carried out, there will be no confusion when the student is through. The supervisor must be alert to be sure that the students do not remove material from the room that should remain. Taking tests questions for friends or future use constitutes the most serious offense. Some instructors lay elaborate plans to prevent this, such as numbering answer sheets and test booklets. With large groups some system like this may be necessary. With groups of fifty or less, the alert supervisor should have little trouble keeping track of these materials.

This writer retains serious reservations about allowing anyone other than the teacher or someone other designated professional to evaluate tests that require written interpretation. We will assume, therefore, that the teacher-aide only corrects objective answers such as multiple choice, matching, true-false, fill-in-the-blank, and others of like sort. Since these questions are either right or wrong, about all that needs to be said here is that good clerical practices should be followed. If the paper will be handed back to the student, be sure that the errors are clearly marked for his benefit.

Careful recording of grades is, of course, a must. Again, most of the techniques involved are self-evident. But there are a few things that might be worth saying. First, be sure all the pertinent data concerning the class is provided. This would include such things as the year, quarter, or semester the class met, the specific time, the title of the course and the instructor. Grade books sometimes are referred to after many years have passed. Second, clearly identify each score or grade entered such as "first book report" or "Colonial America test." This practice helps an individual analyze a list of grades quickly and accurately. Third, if both a letter and a percentage grade is assigned--record both of them. This gives the evaluator a clearer view of the student's performance.

This paper has attempted to provide a little of the material needed to understand secondary education. It suggested that controversy over secondary educational practices was commonplace and then discussed some of the goals of secondary education and how they might be achieved. The necessity for understanding and establishing some kind of a working relationship with the student was stressed. Some attitudes of students in the secondary schools can not be underscored enough, especially for those who plan to work with underprivileged children. After some broad views concerning testing and evaluation were brought out, a specific, practical discussion of the mechanics of testing followed. If this brief sampling has whet your appetite for more knowledge in this broad area, rest assured that an unlimited supply of materials lie readily available for the willing student.

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Materials concerning secondary education are so extensive and so readily available, that working up a long list of sources may well be an exercise in futility. Every field of study, however, has some work that seems to guide the reader a little more directly to an understanding of the subject. Again, of course, not everyone agrees which these might be. So this list should be considered as a very small sampling of an enormous body of literature. The list of periodicals dwells mainly on testing.

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"The best public relations agent is the happy child who returns home from school."

LESSON VIII

IMPROVING SCHOOL AND HOME RELATIONSHIPS

A. Description of Lesson:

Lesson VIII proposes that good schools are dependent upon the good-will of all persons involved; namely teachers, administrators, parents, students, and other lay people. The importance of teacher-aides in public relations is stressed and their roles are outlined. It is important for teacher-aides to remember that in many instances they become the middle-person between the home and the school.

B. Purposes of Lesson:

1. To orient the teacher-aides toward the functions of school-community relations.
2. To present materials essential to understanding the work of the school.
3. To develop concepts and skills necessary to interpret the school program.
4. To learn to relate accurately and effectively information pertaining to school activities.
5. To instill concepts of ethical behavior for school-related personnel.

C. Assignment of Personnel: (Is applicable only if a director is assigned to conduct regularly scheduled training sessions.)

Teachers and administrators should attend this session both as participants and as part of the audience. This lesson lends itself well to role-playing situations in which situations involving both parents and teachers can be dramatized. Teacher-aides could be cast in both roles as could teachers. Well-informed parents could be invited to participate in the learning experiences.

D. Materials Needed:

The following materials appear to be desirable:

Paper and writing materials

Tape recorder and tapes

Micro-phone and P.A. System

E. Content of Lesson:

INTRODUCTION

School and home relations are highly dependent upon effective communications and understanding of the functions, tasks, and limits of each agency. Perhaps the most important forces affecting schools in America today are the opinions of people. Educators realize this when they talk about "good-will". Educational "good-will" today means not only the attitude of the teachers, the community, parents, and students, but also all of the schools' other publics. All of these groups are necessary for the success of a school; the good-will of every one of them is indispensable!

The value of good-will is most evident when it is absent. The effectiveness of a school may be less than it should be, morale may be poor, turnover and absenteeism may be abnormally high--the result is less teaching and impaired learning which makes for an inferior school situation.

Resentment of the community, or any part thereof, toward the school and its operations are signs that the attitude of the people is at an unsatisfactory level. Just as a person becomes ill, so a school can best recognize the need for maintaining good-will when it suffers from the effects of impaired or ineffective relationships with the community. In the same way, prevention of disorders is much wiser than waiting for them to appear before seeking the remedy.

School-Community relations is a phenomenon and a necessity of our times. It has been created by the forces that increase the tempo of the world, casting people into highly different groups, all seeking different objectives, yet all having to work together for the common good and for progress. The growing complexity of civilization has created problems undreamed of when social, economic, political and religious grouping were simple and distinct.

The forces that have changed the world since 1900 have been leveling forces. They have greatly raised the position of the mass of people; and they have greatly reduced the power and control of those who are leaders. Today, people are led by their own opinions as expressed by the nature of their social and job positions. It is now necessary to gain the acceptance, if not the support, of those being directed.

If the adults in a school community do not believe that the school is doing a good job, then it is not doing a good job--the work it is doing is not understood; there is not agreement between school people and patrons. The fact that much is being said about education does not mean, however, that people are well informed. Misinterpretation is caused by the teachers' failure to communicate with the public. The expression "no news is good news" cannot be applied to public service.

The educator's aim is to have the public understand the schools and their problems, not essentially to influence the public favorable toward the schools.

THE TEACHER-AIDE INTERPRETS THE SCHOOLS TO THE PARENTS

The American public school system is the outgrowth of a growing, but often times a confused and groping society. It is the result of generations of local and state experimentation. The thousands of school systems in the United States are governed by rules and regulations which often cancel each other; that is to say what one school may subscribe to, another school system may reject and incorporate a rule or regulation just exactly opposite. In the past 65 years, there have been many additions to the curriculum of the schools, but there have been few subtractions.

Popular demands for holding down or cheapening the costs of public education have been on school personnel for a long, long, time. Yet, since World War II, the costs of operating schools have been increased greatly and the end is not yet in sight. As parents and others become increasingly conscious of the weaknesses in their schools, the greater awareness they will have of what it costs to provide truly modern and comprehensive school programs for the children in the school district. Teacher-aides are in a unique position of developing this consciousness in parents.

There is a growing realization in America that the public schools are public and that they belong to the public. Teacher-aides should constantly remind parents that they pay for the costs of schools, that they should and are conducted in the public's interest, that they should and do serve the total public, and that school patrons should become responsible citizens in their service to the schools. Parents should be reminded that the quality of education correlates with the amount of money spent on education. Increasing the expenditures will usually improve the educational opportunities for children.

The American public school system developed in an atmosphere of public interest and concern. Our earliest public schools were often built by the local people in cooperative endeavors. Members of the board of education and parents supervised the teachers and examined the pupils. The funds to operate the school were voted on in a town meeting which all might attend. As the teaching profession arose with a sense of professional expertness, the lay public came to be considered as the amateurs in education. As a result, parents became less and less active in school matters. This separation seemed to satisfy all concerned for many years. But in the recent years of an immerging complex society with complex children, teachers are now criticizing parents for their lack of interest in schools and parents criticize teachers for the inadequate job they are doing. It is increasingly apparent parents must come to know more about their schools. Teacher-aides should serve as an interpreter of the schools to the parents and of parents' interests to the schools.

Those who believe that a community should do all that it is able to do toward the education of its children and who want the people of a community to retain all of their powers over the schools should take the initiative in gaining community wide support of the schools. If they are seriously interested in preserving and promoting democracy, these people are compelled to promote the participation of parents and other community patrons in school matters.

Parents still have rights in education, but they also have responsibilities. Parents may assert their rights by keeping their children out of school except as required by law, by failing to support the schools financially, or by voting school administration in or out. They have responsibilities to become partners in the education of their children by becoming actively interested in school activities.

In accepting the belief that the public should become actively involved in the schools, there are many factors that should be considered relative to how and why they should become involved: such as:

1. Widespread public participation is encouraged and necessary for free public schools.
2. Every individual is affected by what the public schools do or fail to do.
3. The citizens should be concerned about the changes taking place in the schools.
4. The citizens of a community have an obligation to see that public school funds are spent wisely and prudently.
5. The citizens should keep a watchful eye lest they lose controls over their schools.
6. The citizens should demand that the schools serve the needs of all children.
7. The citizens are often better able than schoolmen to know the needs of the people in the community.
8. The citizens should feel free to raise appropriate questions concerning the effects of their schools on their community.
9. The citizens should demand and accept a partnership with teachers in the education of youth in the community.
10. The citizens should hold the schools to their educational functions.
11. The citizens should offer to assist the professional staffs of the schools in many ways.
12. The citizens are capable of helping the professional staffs of the schools to develop a philosophy and objectives for the school.
13. The citizens should not pressure school personnel for special privileges.
14. Parents should visit the classrooms where their children are enrolled, participate in conferences with parents and provide permanent information about their children.
15. Parents should participate actively in school-community organizations.

When serving as teacher-aides, people give up some of their freedom as a citizen. In return for the loss of freedom in expressing themselves about school matters, teacher-aides become a member of the team that is influential in school affairs, but of a team in which the members curb their individual tendencies to openly criticize the schools.

The usual way of determining the responsibilities of teacher-aides in school-community relations is for the board of education to specify areas in which they may contribute to the improvement of the educational setting. The board of education may select from a suggested list of responsibilities such as the following:

1. Making studies and recommending policies.
2. Providing two-way communication between the school and the community.
3. Determining the impacts of the school upon the community.
4. Discovering the needs of the community in which the school is able to meet.
5. Developing a school philosophy, a statement of school objectives, etc., which supports the views of the community.
6. Correlating the work of the school with that of other agencies.
7. Guiding and supporting the board, the administration, and the teaching staff.
8. Initiating and sponsoring new school projects, such as adult classes, special education, and counseling programs.
9. Getting a school up to date, keeping it up to date, and adjusting it to emergencies.
10. Stablizing a school situation by providing continuity when board members, administrators, and teacher change.
11. Holding good administrators and teachers by giving them support they need and deserve.
12. Maintaining a maximum of local control of public education by crystallizing community sentiment against encroachments by state and federal agencies.
13. Unifying a community through the participation in the citizens' committees of representatives of many community elements.
14. Providing education about education for future members of boards of education and for future community leaders.

15. Providing a balanced view of the entire school system in its relations to a community as a corrective to the specialized views of most professional workers in education.

16. Introducing new administrators and teachers to a community and aiding them in making contacts with the laymen of the community.

17. Impressing upon professional workers the values which a community holds and the relationships of their work to the community's value system.

18. Making school officials aware of minority groups and their needs.

The best time to establish the teacher-aides as an intregal part of the public relations program is when the schools are not in serious trouble. The involvement of teacher-aides in public relations requires careful planning. Adverse attitudes by teacher-aides, the professional staff and school patrons may result in failure of the program. Once their functions have been outlined, teacher-aides should operate within the policies outlined by the board of education.

In bridging the gap between the home and the school, teacher-aides have the unique dual roles of being accepted without qualification by parents in the school community and of being a member of the school staff. In these roles, teacher-aides can strive to help the groups do their jobs more effectively by helping them know each other, understand each other, and eventually work as a team. By working individually and in groups with teachers and parents, the teacher-aide can help cement a partnership based on the natural love for children which can guide children toward responsible citizenship.

A school community is made up of persons of many different political beliefs; religious creeds; business, trade and professional interests; and social and racial backgrounds. Children of all groups must be served by the school. It is neither prudent nor proper for anyone to take a school stand which will favor or offend any segment of the community membership because of social, racial or other reasons. Teacher-aides should recognize that such action will deflect the school from its chosen goal, the good of all children.

Teacher-aides should be aware of potential difficulties in working with parents. Firstly, it may be extremely difficult to find any two parents who can agree on what the school's function should be. Secondly, there are nebulous areas in the fields of moral values, discipline, and others which are hard to define. Additionally, parents must realize that children cannot be treated exactly alike.

The involvement of the teacher-aides in areas of school-community relations should be initiated only after the following topics have been considered.

1. How would the involvement of teacher-aides in this area affect the school and the community.

2. How important is this area in comparison with other possible areas of action?

3. Is this area consistent with the backgrounds of the teacher-aides?

4. Is this area one in which the teacher-aides can see results from their action.

5. Are the teacher-aides sufficiently interested in the area?

Procedural Outline of Lesson
(Directions for Trainer)

In order to more nearly guarantee the achievement of the objectives of this lesson the following procedures are suggested:

1. Pre-test or survey.

2. Initiation of a trainee led discussion relative to the meaning and implications of school-community relations.

3. Identification of the school policies.

4. An analysis of the interaction of the schools publics, ie., home-church, home-business, etc.

5. A group discussion (principal led) on the various school programs.

6. A group discussion on the task of the school and its dependency on the home and the community.

7. Role playing activity related to telling, hearing, and repeating of information accurately and effectively concerning school activities.

8. Role playing situation with teacher-aides related to pupil-gripes.

9. Role playing situation wherein the teacher-aide is afforded an opportunity to relate with a parent concerning a school activity, event, or parent dissatisfaction.

10. Role playing exercise and activity where in the teacher-aide is afforded an opportunity to let their attitudes, manner, and conversation reflect the love for children, pleasure in the work, and pride in what they are doing.

11. Role playing situation wherein the teacher-aide is oriented to appropriateness of attire, social fundamentals, and desirable attitudes.

12. An exercise in the development of poster materials.

13. A discussion of an orientation in teacher and school related personnel and ethnics.

Closure of Lesson and Self-Evaluation

The lesson should be closed by a summarization of the lesson objectives as they relate to the role of the teacher-aide.

The self-evaluation procedures should include a pre-test related to teacher-aide concepts of the school-home relations prior to the lesson and a post-test at the conclusion of the lesson. Evidence of learning will be derived from response differentiation.

Pre-Test

1. What is meant by the term "school-home relations?"

2. List the work of the school:

3. What is included in a school program?

4. (The teacher-aide is told a fact concerning a school activity.) Relate that which you were just told. Check for accuracy.

5. What are some of the ethnics of a teacher? List?

*Post-test is a readministration of this lesson after the lesson has been completed.

F. Follow-up Activities

1. Role playing situations
2. Teacher-parent conference
3. Principal-teacher-aide conference
4. Teacher-aide-parent off campus talk
5. Teacher-aide-P.T.A. presentation relative to teacher-aide functions

"Teaching is giving children freedom to learn each in his own way, that which seems important to each at that time. It is providing a stimulating, challenging but not frustration, environment with the help of the children themselves and modified by their concern." Doris Lee

LESSON IX

WORKING WITH CHILDREN IN SMALL GROUPS OR INDIVIDUALLY

A. Description of Lesson:

Lesson IX deals with active participation of the teacher-aide in the school activities which involve the children. Unlike clerical duties in which teacher-aides are isolated from the children and have little personal effect upon their learning, in the partnership role with teachers, teacher-aides have a measurable impact on the learning rates of children. The teacher-aides' need for knowledge and skills becomes evident immediately as they explore their unlimited opportunities in working with boys and girls as an active worker with children, the teacher-aide must be aware of the recommended guidelines that teachers observe when directing learning activities for children.

B. Purposes of Lesson:

(1) To establish a basis for individualized instruction.

(2) To outline various ways in which teacher-aides could work with children.

(3) To present the area of word attack skills as an illustration of the depth of knowledge that teacher-aides must have to work with children.

(4) To establish guidelines for working with children in groups or individually.

C. Assignment of Personnel: (Is applicable only if a director is assigned to conduct regularly scheduled training sessions)

Teachers and administrators should attend this session both as participants and as part of the audience. It is recommended that different teams of teachers and teacher-aides search and put to practice various ways to work together; e.g. one teacher and teacher-aide could work in reading, another team in arithmetic, etc. By working on these assignments two or three weeks prior to the training session for Lesson IX, the teams could then give reports to the group when they meet to discuss the content in the lesson.

D. Materials Needed:

The materials needed for Lesson IX would depend on the training approach taken by the trainer. There are unlimited opportunities for the trainer in the selection of materials for this lesson.

E. Content of Lesson:

The beginning of a new experience is always exciting. Although a person's forthcoming period of working as a teacher-aide may cause some anxiety, it promises to be a rich and most rewarding experience.

Many teacher-aides may feel reassured because they already have had some experience in dealing with youngsters, perhaps as a baby sitter, camp counselor, or leader of organized youth groups. Past work with young people will be helpful if the teacher-aide recognizes he will be involved in situations that are similar to but different from those mentioned above. There are different responsibilities and expectations on the part of all concerned. Consequently, the teacher-aide may be misled by the past contact with young people rather than aided.

It is hoped that each teacher-aide after studying this lesson will be more capable of helping the teacher in her goals toward better teaching small groups and individuals.

Active participation in classroom activities is important to the teacher-aide. She should continually seek ways in which to assist the teacher. The teacher-aide may find it profitable to ask the teacher if she may assist with various jobs and activities.

The following is a list of kinds of activities that may be performed by a teacher-aide:

1. Help in storing, accounting and distributing supplies and materials.
2. Take attendance, complete records.
3. Collect and account for lunch money.
4. Assist will hall and lunchroom duties.
5. Assist with games on the playground or indoors at recess, rest periods, etc.
6. Help with room arrangement, decorations, exhibits, etc. (calendar, name tags, bulletin board, display materials.)
7. Help with audio-visual aids such as films, film-strips, record player.
8. Make charts for different occasions as the teacher needs them.
9. Help with language games.
10. Read and tell stories (observe the teacher first)
11. Help small groups of children carry out activities. Develop models, "movies", puppet shows, and other child made instructional materials.

In short, the teacher-aide will assist the teacher in all of her endeavors to provide better learning situations for the individual child. While the teacher is having a reading lesson, the teacher-aide may be working with a small group making charts or using flash cards. She should be ready and willing to carry out the teacher's plans at all times, so that a better program for the children will prevail.

A history of American Education dealing primarily with classroom practices would be a history of the attempts to deal with pupil differences. The first publicly supported schools in America were one-room schools which housed pupils of all ages and achievement levels: The pupils had to be grouped according to reading ability and chronological age. While one group was busy with desk work the other group worked with the teacher.

There is no universally accepted definition of individualized instruction. Individualized instruction is not a single method, but refers to the variety of practices through which resourceful and sensitive teachers and aides, working with, and taking their clues from individual children, are helping each of them to move ahead.

Teacher-aides can do so much to help the teacher carry out her plans. Here are only a few.

1. Teacher-aides may be sent by the teacher to the home of a child who is ill, to help him with his work.

2. Take children to the library.

3. Listen to groups or individuals read.

4. Pronounce spelling words.

5. Help in speech training with the use of the tape recorder (perfect enunciation is the key to overcoming many difficulties. The child needs to be taught to produce sounds correctly in context settings.)

6. Help in auditory training--pupils need ear training to develop the habit of hearing sounds correctly. They need to detect likenesses and differences in word and letter sounds. Through saying and hearing rhymes and jingles, they learn similarities in the sounds of rhyming elements in words, to note the beginning and ending sounds of words.

7. Visual training--training in visual discrimination is important so that the child can clarify visually letters so often confused, as well as larger word elements. Pupils should be trained to note general shape of a word, to compare likenesses and differences, and to note characteristic details within words. Numerous studies show that careful training in visual-auditory perception yields marked results in reading and spelling proficiency.

8. Help children understand basic work skills that are presented by the teacher.

9. Supervise children who are rehearsing dramatic activities.

10. Work with children who need special help in arithmetic.

11. Kinesthetic Training-Studies show that writing has value in learning word attack skills.

A child needs to learn the kinesthetic as well as the speech, visual, and auditory patterns of words. Visual-auditory imagery is reinforced by eye-hand movements involved in writing. In writing words, the eye guides the hand. Most children are aided by the act of writing words they have read, heard, or spoken.

To illustrate the role of the teacher-aide in working with children individually or in small groups, information is presented on how to diagnose methods of word attack.

How to Diagnose Methods of Word Attack

Studies show that even good readers do not always use the most efficient word attack methods. An aide needs some means of discovering how each child meets new words. A recommended procedure is to observe him during his sight--oral reading. This check list may be helpful:

No method of word attack

1. Guesses word without using clue.

2. Refuses to try word; waits to be told.

3. Omits the word and continues reading.

An inadequate method of word attack

1. Guesses the word from picture clue only.

2. Guesses the word from context clue.

3. Sounds phonetic elements incorrectly, producing meaningless words.

4. Guesses the word from partial sounding.

5. Fuses sounds incorrectly through knowing the correct sounds.

6. Spells the words with poor results.

An adequate method of word attack

1. Guesses the word from the context plue the first sound, first syllable, or beginning and ending sounds.

2. Looks for little words of familiar parts and then tries to pronounce the new word, using context clues.

3. Pronounces the word correctly sounding the syllables.

All pupils should profit from individual help by the teacher-aide in phonics and word analysis training. Even good readers show marked reading improvement when they acquire the most deisrable methods of word attack.

A teacher needs to be most familiar with:

1. Word Meaning Skills

The first and most valuable single clue to the recognition of any word is its meaning in contextual setting. While context and picture clues are valuable, the use of these clues alone often leds to guessing. The child needs to build up a large stock of word meanings by learning word relationships.

Word meaning skills:

1. Inferring meanings from context clues.

2. Matching words with pictures.

3. Classifying words according to meanings.

4. Recognizing synonyms and antonyms.

5. Studying words with more than one meaning.

6. Practice words by matching definitions.

2. Phonetic Analysis and Ear Training

The first use of the sound of letters in word recognition is naturally the initial sound of the word in combination with the context clues. Consequently, the sounds the child should learn first are the consonant sounds. Initial instruction should include training in beginning and final consonant sounds and should be combined with use of context clues to read and understand new words.

3. Word Analysis Skills

The most natural first step in word analysis is to train the child to see the base form in the simplest derived forms: "run, in "runs", "work" in "working".

Finding a small word in a longer word is another analysis technique that ranks high among other natural methods which children use in attacking new words. However, children shouldn't be required to look for little words whose sounds are changes when they appear in longer words. For example, the child should not look for "man" in "many".

4. Word Building Skills

Changes made in word forms by adding different endings (s, es, ies, ing, ed, etc.,) are another phase of training in word recognition. The most commonly used prefixes and suffixes may be introduced at the and third grade level.

A. Forming plurals by: adding s, es, ies.

B. Adding: ing, ed, y, er, est, ly.

C. Adding commonest prefixes to words.

D. Adding commonest suffixes to words.

5. Dictionary Skills

Training in dictionary skills increases the pupils ability to attack new words successfully and broadens his understanding of words and their usage. There are six specific dictionary skills to be developed in a word analysis program:

A. Alphabetizing

B. Syllabication

C. Vowels, accent, guide words

D. Respelling for pronunciation

E. Pronounciation key

F. Definition--multiple meanings

A teacher-aide who has developed insight into the reading processes is able to recognize unlimited situations in which he could assist the teacher in reading activities. Similarly, there are other skill areas in the curriculum where teacher-aides could provide valuable assistance. Like the reading instruction, however, the teacher-aide should be thoroughly familiar with the skills.

It seems that perhaps the heart of the success as a teacher-aide will depend largely on how the person works with small groups or individuals. The process of teacher-aide-student relationships provide for active involvement in the learning process.

Discussion and attentive listening help students to clarify their own ideas, opinions and beliefs. The teacher-aide will help them to conduct discussions in an orderly way, to deal with controversial issues without prejudice and to participate as rational citizens in a democratic society. The teacher-aide will help children evaluate opinions ,and backgrounds different from their own and thus help in building a meaningful philosophy that is a guide to their own lives.

As teacher-aides working with small groups, a person provides a logical supplement to large group instruction in special ways. It may be used to reemphasize parts of the common core elements of the learning unit. Often times, small groups form the arena for extending concepts in such specific directions as will engage and challenge the individual pupil. Efforts should always be made to meet the needs of smaller groups of pupils who may have unique learning patterns, or to provide the depth that is appropriate for pupils who can accelerate their progress.

The technique for conduct of small group instruction is very challenging. The real challenge for the teacher-aide is to realize the maximum advantage for the individuals of the group. Small-group activity not only permits the teacher-aide to see the child as an individual learner, but helps the child make a unique contribution to the group activity. The teacher-aide will find herself functioning in a variety of roles. The teacher-aide varies his behavior to include asking, listening and advising and puts much less emphasis on telling and directing.

American children seem to learn in almost any democratic situation. A child's art work is most revealing. Too much can not be said about the classroom atmosphere.

1. Is the room neat and clean?

2. Are children's treasures displayed?

3. Are attractive, teaching bulletin boards on display?

4. Is the class, as a whole, a relaxed class?

Each school seems to have a character all its own. What a teacher-aide can do to improve the character of the room is very important. As a teacher aide, a person needs to be perceptive. He must observe many personalities and differences in children and teachers. How interested pupils are in learning does not depend on what method, but what the teacher, and his helpers do with the method. Most children can become interested in learning anything that is presented in a dynamic way.

Just as an example of what one person can do with children, if she is creative and interested in imparting knowledge. Let's take a fruit, the apple, what is known about it? Here are some of the possibilities:

Whole-part	tree, pie, apple sauce, pulp, seed and skin
Cause-effect:	pollination, stomach ache
Sequential:	seed, tree, blossom, fruit; time from seed to fruit.
Observations:	Behaviors: reddens, softens, drips, drops
	Qualities: number, amount, texture, flavor, moisture, solidity, size, shape, color sweetness, acidity, odor sound
	Uses: for food, housing (worms), jelly, history of human uses, decoration, hunting (worms-robins);

Comparison-Contrast:	apple, pears; apple, peach; apple, banana
Theories:	in relation to cultivation; to health; "an apple a day..."
Laws and principles:	falling bodies
The word as a word:	synonyms, antonyms, homonyms, derivation: from the Anglo Saxon
Figurative meanings:	You are the apple of my eye
Uses:	the apple (noun) the apple pudding (adjective) pronunciation: AP'L

One of the most important things that a teacher-aide can do is to help the teacher give every child a purpose. It has been said that "To know that you know that you do not know is the beginning of wisdom." Francis Bacon said "that an appraisal of one's ignorance is the beginning of wisdom."

The learning-thinking process beings in the mind of each person as he experiences a state of doubt or curiosity about what he knows or does not know, and what he thinks will or will not happen. The teacher-aide is challenged to help the child in his learning process by involving him in the dynamics of purpose-setting. The teacher-aide, having helped to create a good climate with the duties assigned him, must help the child to move forward in testing his ideas, to seek, to reconstruct, to reflect, and to prove.

The teacher-aide will be another adult in the room with the maturity to help the child find the answers that he so desires.

The teacher-aides most important task as is that of the teacher, will be to help the students. This is not an easy taks; it demands time, practice, devotion and sound principles. All children should have as much experience of independent work as possible. But if he is left alone with his problems without any help, he may make no progress at all. If the teacher-aide helps too much, nothing is left to the student. The teacher-aide should help, but not too much and not too little.

"What the best and wisest parent wants for his own child that must the community want for all its children." John Dewey

LESSON X

HOME VISITATION

A. Description of Lesson:

To establish and maintain a good atmosphere for educating the children who attend our schools we must have good school-home relationships. Frequent contacts between parents and school personnel help to establish mutual understanding and appreciation for the goals and efforts of each. These contacts are made through: (1) parent visits to the school, (2) school activities which invite community participation, such as athletic events, (3) parent-teacher organizations, (4) written reports and notices prepared by teachers and other school personnel, and (5) visits to homes made by school personnel.

This lesson, which is designed to prepare the teacher-aide to become an effective liaison between the home and school through home visitation, has fcur major parts:

(1) Purposes of home visitation.

(2) Preparation for home visitation

(3) Making the visit.

(4) Follow-through on home visitation.

B. Purposes of the Lesson:

(1) To develop an awareness of the importance of cooperative attitudes between parents and school personnel

(2) To help the teacher-aide overcome feelings of inadequacy and timidity in making home visits.

(3) To develop an awareness of and respect for the feelings and attitudes of parents.

(4) To develop responsibility in handling priviliged information.

(5) To train the teacher aide to be observant of home conditions which affect the child's school experience so she may add to the teacher's knowledge and understanding of the child.

C. Assignment of Personnel: (Is applicable only if a director is assigned to conduct regularly scheduled training sessions)

In addition to teacher-aides, any member of the school system who is involved in home visitation should attend this session. Those who have had experience in visitation should be prepared to share their experiences and ideas, and to answer questions asked by new personnel. A professional social worker from the school system or a local welfare organization may be utilized as a resource person.

To introduce this lesson and to stimulate group participation in discussion the trainees may be asked to recall people who have come to their homes as salesmen, interviewers, or solicitors, and to tell what they particularly liked or disliked about their approach.

Two or three trainees might plan ahead to demonstrate some "do's and don'ts" in home visition.

An experienced social worker should meet with the group and perhaps give a brief talk highlighting approaches she has found to be effective in home visitation.

Each person involved in this lesson should have an opportunity to read and study the content of this lesson prior to its presentation and should be encouraged to formulate question for group discussion.

D. Materials Needed:

The trainer should provide each person involved with a copy of this lesson for use during the training session and as reference material later.

E. Content of Lesson:

PART ONE: PURPOSES FOR HOME VISITATION BY THE TEACHER AIDE

Every home visit, whether by teacher, teacher-aide or other school personnel, provides an opportunity for strengthening the home-school relationship and this should be the principal goal regardless of the specific purpose for which the visit is made. The teacher-aide may also be effective in deepening the understanding between the community and school, since she really is a representative of both. The teacher-aide usually lives in the community served by the school, may have grown up there, and knows many of the local people. Thus she understands the goals the parents have for their children as well as their attitude toward the school. Through home visitation she can help parents work with the school to fulfill these goals. Through the reports she will make of her visits she can also help school personnel understand parent attitudes and goals.

In some school systems teacher-aides, assigned to assist classroom teachers, may find that some home visitation is part of their duties. In other schools a teacher-aide may be employed to do home visitation on a full time basis, as a social worker or home-bound teacher for sick children. The material in this lesson should be helpful in either case.

Many school systems employ home-bound teachers to work with children who are unable to attend school for long periods due to illness or physical disability. A teacher-aide may fill this position in schools that do not have certified home-bound teachers. In this case the teacher-aide will visit the home (or hospital) regularly to make it possible for the child to keep up with his studies. The child's teacher should work closely with the teacher-aide to provide suitable materials and methods of instruction. In turn, the teacher-aide may need to explain to the parents how they may help the child with his lessons in the period between her visits. The teacher-aide who is assigned to specific classrooms may also be asked to do home visits of this type when it is necessary for a child to be absent for a long period and no home-bound teacher is available.

Often a child may be absent from school for several days with no explanation from the home, especially in rural areas which lack telephone service. Families sometimes neglect to notify the school that they are moving because they do not realize the importance of the records the school must keep. A child may be absent because he lacks adequate clothing or shoes, is sick or has suffered an injury. At such times the teacher-aide may be asked to visit the home to determine the cause so school personnel may work with the parents to get the child back in school, or provide for the continuance of his education at home in the case of illness or injury.

For a school to function effectively many records must be kept and much information about the school community is needed. The teacher-aide may be assigned to visit homes to collect information. This may be of a factual nature such as names and ages of children in the family, occupation of parents, and health records or she may make a survey of the parents' opinions or ideas. For example, the school leaders might wish to discover if parents would like for the school to provide a summer session for the children.

The teacher-aide may visit homes to expalin new programs to the parents or to invite them to attend parent meetings or workshops. Parents sometimes feel that they would be "out of place" in the school and they may often respond to the aide when they would feel ill at ease with the teacher. The parents know that the aide is a member of their own community and by her favorable attitude toward teachers and other school personnel she can make it easier for the parents to get acquainted.

A visit by someone representing the school helps the child realize that the school values him and his home. Often such a visit helps to eliminate some of his problems and conflicts even though the visit was made for other reasons. Parents may often have a more favorable attitude toward the child and his school experience as a result of a visit, especially when the teacher-aides tells about some special ability or accomplishment of the child. The teacher-aide should not be given the responsibility of discussing a child's school problems with his parents as this is the function of his teacher and the school guidance personnel.

PART TWO: PREPARATION FOR THE VISIT

Home visitation is not an easy task for anyone the first time. Everyone wonders if she will be able to think of things to say and how she will be received. Of course it is much easier to visit a home when you are acquainted with the family. However, after a while the teacher-aide will be at ease visiting homes which are strange to her.

Before beginning home visitation the teacher-aide should be aware that she will probably find homes of every description, from clean, neat and attractive to dirty, messy and miserable. Just as the physical aspects of the homes will greatly vary, so will the attitudes of the parents. They may be friendly or aloof, pleased or embarassed, angry or worried, cooperative or distrustful. The teacher-aide must aslo realize that each child is equally deserving the best the school has to offer, regardless of his home conditions and parents' attitudes. She must enter each home with a cheerful, friendly and positive attitude.

In planning her home visitation schedule the teacher-aide should give some thought to the time of day in which visits will be made. Does she like to have visitors when she is just ready to begin a meal, or very early in the morning before the house is in order? If there is a telephone in the home it is best to call ahead and plan the visit at a time which is convenient for the family. If the mother works or if it is important to meet with both parents it is sometimes necessary to plan evening or weekend visits. When there is no telephone a note may be sent home telling the date and time of the planned visit and asking the parents to set another time if that is not convenient.

In spite of all the planning there may be times when the teacher-aide will arrive at a home and find that it is not a good time for a visit; a child may be ill, unexpected company may have arrived, or something else may demand the parents' attention. In such cases the teacher-aide should arrange to return at another time. Their time is valuable too.

The teacher-aide should spend some time preparing herself mentally for the visit. First, she should make a mental note of the things she wishes to discuss with the parents. If she is collecting some specific information, such as health records, she will needs to take along some forms on which to record this. If there is some printed material which will be distributed the aide should become familiar with it so she can give the parents a brief description of its content. There are three reasons for doing this: (1) the description may stimulate the parents to read the material, (2) some parents may read poorly or not at all, and (3) some may lay the material aside and forget to read it.

The aide should acquaint herself with the child whose home she will visit and should be able to tell the parents something about him which will help them form a good opinion of his school experiences. There is always something worthy of praise. A child who is a poor student may have excellent manners or sing or draw well.

The teacher will be much more comfortable while making home visits if she wears the same type of clothing which she wears to school. Parents will be more at ease if she is not too "dressed up," after all, they will have on their working clothes. In rural areas especially, sensible shoes are a must and in wet weather it is advisable to take along some boots.

PART THREE: MAKING THE VISIT

In making a home visit the teacher-aide should keep in mind that the establishment of warm, friendly relationships is more important than getting information. Once good relationships are established information can be easily obtained.

Almost all parents are somewhat apprehensive about a visitor from the school, but if the teacher-aide has called ahead, made an appointment and explained the purpose of the visit the parents will be more relaxed when she arrives. If there is no telephone and the visitor is unexpected she whould introduce herself at once and tell why she is there. She might say: "Hello, I'm Mary Smith, the teacher-aide in Johnny's class, and I'm visiting the parents to complete the children's health records" Usually the visitor is invited to come in and sit down but occasionally parents may neglect to do this. In that event the aide might say, "May I come in so I can talk with you about this?" unless it is obvious that the parents do not want her to come in or would be embarrased for her to do so. Many interviews have been done while standing at the door or sitting on the front porch.

Although a home visit should not be lengthy, the teacher-aide should take time to get acquainted with the parents. A glance around will usually reveal something in which the visitor can express interest and this will stimulate conversation. Many friendships have begun over a plant, a piece of antique furniture, or some hobby or handicraft.

Of course, the good things the teacher-aide has to tell about the child will have the greatest effect in establishing good relationships. Her attitude should clearly say "I like your child and I enjoy working with him at school each day." Sometimes parents may ask questions about the child at school which the teacher-aide is not prepared to discuss. Questions about social or academic problems which the child may have should be referred to the teacher. If the parent asks such a question the teacher-aide should say "I think you should talk to the teacher, Mrs. Jones, about that. She can tell you much more about it than I can."

The teacher-aide should avoid repeating any priviliged information pertaining to the school, the children and other parents. If is always wise to avoid unfavorable discussion of others, whether they be school personnel or parents. The teacher-aide should not allow herself to be drawn into such a conversation.

If it is the purpose of the visit to collect information and there are forms to be completed, it is usually best for the teacher-aide to record the information rather than the parents. She is familiar with the form and knows how it should be done. Often information blanks are confusing to those who are not used to completing them and, in addition, some people may not write well. Usually parents are very cooperative and readily supply the needed information but should they refuse to answer certain questions the teacher-aide should not allow herself to become annoyed. Everyone has the right to privacy.

While the teacher-aide is visiting with the parents and discussing the purpose of the visit she should be observant of home conditions which may affect the child's school work. Such things as family make-up, size of the home, health of the family members, and parent attitudes toware the children have an influence on the child's progress. For example, a child from a large family living in a small, cramped hours may be unable to do home work because there is no place where he can work undistrubed. If teachers and teacher-aides understand the home situation they will be much better prepared to help the child at school. By making mental note of these things the teacher-aide can add to the information the teacher has gained from her conferences with parents.

Each school representative visiting a home should encourage parents to visit the school. Many parents come to the school only when there is a problem and at such times conferences may be strained and distressing. If parents would visit the school before problems occur good relationships could be established which might prevent problems from arising and should problems develop, the parents and teachers could more easily work together to solve them. When the teacher-aide leaves a home she should invite the parents to visit the school and perhaps suggest an appropriate time for the visit.

"Thank you, I enjoyed visiting with you. You have been very helpful," spoken sincerely will help make the teacher-aide welcome on her next visit.

PART FOUR: FOLLOW-THROUGH ON HOME VISITATION

As soon as possible after the visit the teacher-aide should make a brief record of the visit. First, she should check over any information forms which were used to be sure they are neat, ledgible and completely filled out. Next, she should write a brief report of her visit. This should contain the following:

1. Name of the child who's home was visited.

2. Date of the visit.

3. Persons contacted (Mother, Father, Etc.)

4. Person making the visit.

5. Purpose of the visit.

6. Brief notes containing information which will help school personnel work more effectively with the child and his parents.

The teacher-aide should be as objective as possible in making this report and should keep in mind that many people may have access to it.

In addition to the written report it may be helpful for the teacher and teacher-aide to spend some time discussing the visit and planning ways they can use any information gained to help the child.

F. Follow-Up Activities:

The following questions may be used for individual study or review, or as written assignment, or for group discussion.

1. Give five reasons or purposes for making a home visit.
2. What is the most important goal of all home visitation?
3. What things should the teacher-aide take into condiseration when planning a time for a home visit?
4. What should the teacher-aide not discuss with the parents when making a home visit?
5. What should be the teacher-aide's attitude when visiting every home?
6. Why should the teacher-aide have something good to tell the parents about their child.
7. Why should parents be encouraged to visit the school?
8. Why might parents respond to a teacher-aide more readily than they would to the teacher?
9. Why should parents be given a brief summary of printed material?
10. What information should be included in the home visitation follow-up report? What should not be included in this report.

True-False Questions: These questions may be used at the end of the lesson to see if the trainees have mastered the material.

_____ 1. The teacher aide should be responsible for reporting a child's misbehavior to the parents when she visits his home.

_____ 2. The teacher-aide should introduce herself when she arrives at a home if she is not already acquainted with the family.

_____ 3. The aide should carry a note pad and pencil and while in the home should write down everything that is discussed.

_____ 4. The teacher-aide may sometimes serve as a home-bound teacher.

_____ 5. Establishing a warm, friendly relationship between the parents and school should be the major goal of every home visit.

_____ 6. The teacher-aide should wear her "Sunday best" when doing home visitation.

_____ 7. If a parent complains about something his child's teacher has done the teacher-aide should agree with the parent.

_____ 8. Most parents welcome visitors from the school because they want their child to have the best possible education.

_____ 9. Discussing the problems of other parents is one way to establish a good relationship.

_____ 10. "If you can't say something good don't say anything" is a good rule to follow when doing home visitation.

_____ 11. If a parent does not wish to answer certain questions the aide should insist that an answer be given.

_____ 12. Parents should be encouraged to visit the school while it is in session so they may observe their child at work in his classroom.

_____ 13. Cooperation and understanding between the school and home may prevent the child from having problems at school.

_____ 14. School leaders and teachers do not want parents to visit during school hours, only after school.

_____ 15. The teacher-aide may tell parents about another child who is a poor student so they will be proud of their child's success.

_____ 16. Parents may often worry that a visitor from school has come to tell about something bad their child has done.

_____ 17. A home visit should be as brief as possible so only the purpose of the visit should be discussed.

_____ 18. After the teacher-aide has completed a visit she should make a brief written report of it.

_____19. If the teacher-aide is observant she may notice home conditions which affect the child's school achievement.

_____20. The teacher-aide should not discuss with anyone information which she obtained during a home visit.

"Reading is to the mind what exercise is to the body." Joseph Addison

LESSON XI

THE CHILD BEGINS READING

A. Description of Lesson:

This lesson discusses (1) reading in the "good old days," (2) materials and methods for reading today, (3) the act of reading, (4) reading levels, and (5) a description of a reading period.

Part One presents a critical glance at one philosophy that was prevalent in education at one time in our history. Part Two gives a very brief introduction to some of the materials and methods that are available for teaching reading. In Part Three some of the essentials for success in beginning reading are presented. How to determine the reading level of a child is presented in Part Four, and a description of a way to teach a reading group is presented in Part Five.

B. Purposes of Lesson:

(1) To give the trainee a cursory knowledge of several current methods and materials for teaching reading.

(2) To suggest methods for recognizing the needs of children.

(3) To guide the trainee into finding an effective method of teaching reading.

(4) To point up some of the things that should not be done and some of the things that should be done in teaching reading.

(5) To emphasize some of the reading skills necessary for effective beginning reading.

C. Assignment of Personnel (Is applicable only if a director is assigned to conduct regularly scheduled training sessions)

It is suggested that a panel of teachers present an overall review of the reading program in the school system. The panel members may want to adopt some of the many available audio-visual materials into their presentations.

D. Materials Needed:

At the training session, a wide assortment of the reading materials used in the school system should be displayed in an operative condition; so teacher-aides can experiment with them.

E. Content of Lesson:

PART ONE: A FORMER PHILOSOPHY

If you find your task is hard,
    Try, try again;
Time will bring you your reward,
    Try, try again.
All that other folks can do,
Why, with patience, should not you?
Only keep this rule in view:
    Try, try again[1]

This poem appeared in McGuffey's Reader in 1907. Many of the children who read this stanza had experienced failure many times and certainly needed this admonition. But for a number of these failures, "try, try again" meant going over the same material with the same teacher time after time. Instead of success, the failures became more pronounced. The children were often labeled "dummies," and they dropped out of school as soon as their parents would allow it.

The teachers were prone to follow the admonition in the poem, too. If the child did not learn to read, "try, try again" meant "whip, whip, again." Many of the teachers believed that a switch or a board applied to the "Seat of Learning" would certainly bring forth knowledge.

The McGuffey Reader was an excellent book for its time, but we have learned a great deal about how a child learns to read since 1907. John Dewey, E. L. Thorndike, and Piaget have each contributed knowledge that has given us greater understanding about the learning process. But we still have much to learn. Even now we do not know exactly how the child learns to read, but through trial and error we have discovered some of the ways that will work and have identified some of the ways that will not work.

PART TWO: MATERIALS AND METHODS FOR READING TODAY

Many kinds of materials have been developed for use in the teaching of reading. The basic readers, such as the MacMillan, Scott Foresman, Lippincott, Houghton-Mifflin, and all of those published by the major publishing companies contain excellent material and ideas for the teaching of reading. There are some good boxed materials such as the S.R.A. Reading Laboratories, workbooks, and workbook type material such as the Programmed Learning books by McGraw-Hill that are very good. Reading games such as Consonant Lotto, Linguistic Rolling Readers, and Phonic Rummy have been developed and are quite effective.

Not only are there many materials to choose from, there are also many methods of teaching to choose from. There are some who say that the best way to teach a child to read is to teach him to recognize words by sight. This method began its popularity in the United States during the 1840's.

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[1] McGuffey's Fourth Eclectic Reader Revised Edition, (New York: American Book Company, 1907), p. 29.

It was developed as a part of a revolt against the ABC method. In the word method, the student is presented with whole words during his first week of reading instruction. The child uses configuration clues, that is the way the word is shaped, and context clues, how the word is used, to determine what the word says. After the words are mastered by sight, the child learns to spell the words and to apply phonetic analysis for pronounciation.

Phonics has been around for many years. This method is based upon the idea that a child learns to read by learning the sounds the letters represent and using this knowledge to unlock the pronounciation of words.

Charles C. Fries, a linguist, advocates a form of phonics called linguistics for the teaching of reading. Fries and other linguists wish to eliminate picture clues and rely on teaching the child to "break the code." The child learns to relate the graphemes, written symbols such as "a," "b" etc., to the phonemes, sounds in the language. With these new skills the child is able to pronounce the sounds in the printed words, and to recognize them as part of his spoken language.

The I.T.A. method developed by Sir James Pittman is relatively new. Pittman developed an augmented alphabet, one that contains the traditional ABC symbols plus eighteen new ones, to represent all of the sounds in the English language. Each sound in the English language is represented by one and only one symbol. Once the child recognizes the sound that the symbol represents, he knows that the relationship will remain constant.

Invariably someone will ask,"What material and what method is the best?" The best material is the material that works best for the teacher and the child. The best method is the method that the teacher can use effectively to teach the child. There is no one set of materials or one method that will work for all teachers or all children. This places a responsibility on the teacher to try many types of materials and many methods to determine the best for any given situation. The auxiliaries should be observant of the teachers they are working with, but not imitators of. They must remember that even though a teacher gains success with the method she is using, the same method may not work for another person or another group.

The methods and the materials suggested in this lesson then, are not necessarily the best, but they are based upon sound experimental research.

PART THREE: THE ACT OF READING

There are basic skills that a child must have some mastery of before he can be a reader. Just as there are certain fundamentals a child must master before he can begin to talk intelligently or walk without falling, he must develop some type of readiness skills before he can learn to read. The child hears others talk and he feels a need to communicate his ideas to them. He feels this need so greatly that by the time he is two years old he has begun to master one of the most difficult tasks he will ever be called upon to do. His readiness was in the form of hearing others talk, imitating sounds, and feeling a need. All of these were necessities before he could learn to talk. Before he can learn to read, he must be read to, see words in print, and feel a need or desire to read. He must understand that words represent ideas. Words are made up of letters. Letters represent sounds. These basic ideas, if not taken care of before he enter school, must be incorporated in the readiness program.

When a child is ready to read, he must be taught word perception. This includes:

1. Sight recognition--An instantaneous recognition of words such as the, a, and, was etc., must be familiar.
2. Structural analysis--Learns how to recognize additions or alterations of sight words.
    - a. Recognizes compounds--policeman, etc.
    - b. Recognizes contractions--doesn't, isn't, etc.
    - c. Recognizes inflected forms--the addition of s, es, 's, ed, ing, er, est.
    - d. Recognizes derivatives--suffixes added to a root.
    - e. Can divide into syllables
3. Phonics
    - a. Knowledge of all the stable consonants (b, d, f, h, j, r, l, m, n, p, q, r, t, v, w, y, z)
    - b. Knowledge of the vowel patterns
        1. Closed syllables--at, in, up
        2. Open syllables--me, no, so
        3. Vowel Digraphs--ail, oats, eat
        4. Final e controlled--hate, kite, hope
        5. w, l controlled--law, Paul, ball
        6. Diphthongs--oil, house, now
        7. r Controlled--car, hair, award
4. Consonant blends--bl, cl, fl, br, cr, fr
5. Consonant digraphs--ch, sh, th, ng
6. Phonograms--word families such as cat-rat, fat-sat

With these skills the child can "decode" the printed symbols and take the early steps in reading. All of these skills are not likely to be mastered in the first grade but by a very few students in a given class, but by the second half of the third grade all the children should have a mastery of the skills if they are to read with success in the third reader.

PART FOUR: READING LEVELS

Even though all of the children should have a mastery of the skills described above by the second half of the third grade, just a cursory observation reveals that a great number of the children have not mastered these skills by this time. The reading teacher must be constantly aware that there are children in each grade level that can not read the material that is assigned to the grade, while at the same time, recognize that there are children who can read on grade levels above the assigned level.

More than likely a basal series will be used in the school where you will be working. As was stated in the beginning of the lesson, basals published by reputable companies are good for teaching reading, but there are facts that must be considered. The publisher may have intended that a book 3 basal be used in third grade, but it may be that only a few children in a particular third grade can use the book. Each classroom should have basals from more than one level at their disposal.

It is essential that an attempt be made by the teacher at the beginning of the school year, to determine the reading level of each child. This can be done by administering a standardized test, but the best way is to administer an informal reading test. The informal reading test is administered individually by the teacher. The child is asked to read from basal readers until the one is found that meets the instructional needs of the child. The best rule of thumb for determining the instructional level is to choose a reading selection from near the middle of the book. If the child can read without mispronouncing more than 5 out of 100 words, the book is too difficult. It is very important that the teacher take note of the type errors each child makes in his reading. In this way the teacher can help each child acquire the skills he is deficient in and strengthen those skills that are weak.

After all of the children have been tested, the teacher may group children according to their reading level and skills. She may have as many as six groups or as few as two. This will vary from class to class but in most instances there will be 3 or more groups.

PART FIVE: THE READING PERIOD

With the children properly identified and grouped, the teacher is ready to begin instruction. The teacher's manual that accompanies a basal series has many excellent suggestions for teaching. The teacher is to select activities from the manual that pertain to the needs of the children she is working with. These activities, coupled with those that the teacher has devised, should make for a meaningful reading lesson.

Too often teachers will try to present the lessons as outlined in the manual and either become bogged down in meaningless repetition or the futility of trying to get everything done that is suggested. It is good that the teacher is constantly reminded he is trying to teach the children according to their needs. The teacher will know their needs because he will have identified them before he began his instruction. Lessons should be prepared to meet those needs.

The practice of having each child, in turn, read orally has little to offer. Silent reading should always precede oral reading except in testing situations. Preparation for reading, including the introduction of new or difficult words; a background for the story; and things to look for in the story should precede silent reading.

New or difficult words should not be introduced in isolation. Introduce the words in sentences that give context clues to the meaning of the word. For example:

Poor: I saw a burro

Better: The boy will ride on the back of the burro.

In the first sentence there are no clues to indicate what the word means. In the second sentence the reader knows that the word refers to something that is alive and capable of being ridden. He can eliminate several possibilities and quite likely come up with the right word.

If the teachers in your school are using a basal, they should announce the title of the story to be read and have the children look in the Table of Contents to find the page the story begins on. Children need to know how to use the Table of Contents and should be encouraged to use it often.

When they have all found the correct page, the children should discuss the title. The teacher should ask questions that will lead them into speculations concerning the nature of the story. The pictures on the pages should be discussed. The teacher should try to lead children into doing most of the talking while he serves as a guide to lead them to reasonable assumptions and keep them from wandering too far astray. The teacher should not allow a few of the children to dominate the discussion. It is important that every child feel free to express his ideas. A good teacher never allows anyone to ridicule a child for his seemingly inane ideas. When a child makes a statement that is not clear to the teacher, the child should be asked to clarify the statement. Many times a child is given an opportunity to clarify an ill thought out statement, he may, with guidance be able to see the errors in his thinking.

The child should be given the background for the story before he begins to read. An attempt should be made to relate the setting and the events of the story to something the child is familiar with.

There should be a purpose for reading that is clearly understood by the child before he begins to read. If the purpose is pleasure, he should be told. If there are certain bits of information to be gleaned from the material, the child should know the nature of the information he is seeking. The teacher should make sure that he is fully aware of the purpose, and then help the child acquire a purpose too.

Now the children are ready to read. They should be asked to read the story or episode silently. There should be as few interruptions as possible during this time. If a child encounters a word that he does not know and cannot decode on his own, he should feel free to call upon the teacher for assistance. Before telling him the word, the teacher should make sure he has tried all of his word attack skills. When he has used these and failed, he should be told the word so he may procede.

When the children have finished reading the story, the teacher is ready to discuss it with them. The only oral reading that should take place is to answer specific questions or to dramatize portions of the story. Very few questionsshould be answered by direct quotes from the book. The questions should be of the type that might require several passages from more than one place in the story to give weight to the answer. It is important that every child gets an opportunity to contribute to the discussion. The teacher should ascertain that the children achieved their purpose for reading.

If the teacher decided to have dramatization of a story, he should choose one that lends itself well to this type of treatment. There will be some stories where the children will be asked to read the lines of the characters while one serves as a narrator, and there will be other stories that can be acted out with the children pretending they are the various characters. Both methods require interpretation of the plot and the characters in the story, but the latter method gives more freedom to development of the ideas gained from the story.

There are other follow-up ideas that teachers will think of, and the teacher's manuals will provide suggestions too. It is important that the activities are constructive, achievable by the children, and interesting.

The teacher should never hand out work to be done that is too simple or has no recognizable purpose. All of the work that is required of the child should be fully explained and an attempt should be made to prevent the child being asked to work on something that is too simple or too difficult. There should be a challenge in the work but the correct response should be within his grasp.

Conclusion

This lesson has discussed the first step in reading. You have read about some of the various methods of teaching reading and some of the skills necessary for beginning reading. Some suggestions for preparation for reading have been prevented, and some of the "do's" and "don'ts" of how to conduct a reading lesson have been offered. Reading is not an end itself, but a means to an end. The teacher must always remember that he is teaching a child how to unlock information either for pleasure or guidance, from the printed page.

This lesson is designed to orientate you to the reading processes in the school. It is anticipated that you will be called upon to assist either the classroom teachers or the special reading teacher in guiding the learning experiences of children in reading. A thorough understanding of the content in this lesson will give you a strong foundation upon which to develop the specific job skills necessary to aid the teachers in reading.

Such expressions as, "Figures don't lie but liars figure." and "there are liars, then there are black liars and then there are statisticians." point up the great need in our day for each person to have a workable knowledge of arithmetic. Many are the people who have gone to loan companies and borrowed an amount of money, paid several payments, and then found they still owed almost the amount of the original loan. Because of their lack of number knowledge, they did not realize they were paying a very high rate of interest. Examples such as this could be carried into almost every area of day to day dealings. If a workable knowledge of arithmetic is to be learned by children, a meaningful approach to arithmetic instead of isolated bits and pieces of rules and memorization must be used in today's classroom.

LESSON XII

ARITHMETIC INSTRUCTION

A. Description of Lesson:

The arithmetic lesson presented here is made up of two distinct parts. The first part consists of some of the basic principles involved in teaching arithmetic to children. These principles apply to the development of any concept in arithmetic regardless of whether the teacher uses the modern or traditional approach to the teaching of arithmetic. Following this is a lesson on addition of fractions designed to illustrate or put into use these basic principles.

B. Purpose of Lesson:

The purpose of the lesson is to acquaint teacher-aides with some procedures involved in teaching arithmetic to children. Especially with younger elementary children and particularly in arithmetic, many and varied activities are needed to develop the concepts. Children of this age are yet in the stage where thinking in abstract terms is difficult and they need something tangible to which they can relate the abstract symbols as each idea is developed. Interest span at this age is short and the varied activities also help in this respect. If the teacher-aide is able to see the reasons for the activities involved, more meaningful individual and group help can be offered. Specific objectives for the second part of the lesson are:

(1) To be able to take an arithmetic concept from the most simple exercises to the more difficult in step by step sequence.

(2) To be able to identify different aspects of an arithmetic lesson.

(3) To identify materials needed to develop a concept.

(4) To use materials to illustrate the relationship between abstract symbols and illustrations or objects.

C. Assignment of Personnel: (Is applicable only if a director is assigned to conduct a regularly scheduled training session.)

If the lesson is to be presented in a group situation, it would be helpful to bring in three or four teachers and get their reactions and suggestions on the procedures involved. They could also point out some of the specific things teacher-aides might do in connection with arithmetic instruction.

The first part of the lesson should be a discussion period emphasizing the steps involved in teaching an arithmetic concept. An effort should be made to involve the participants in the discussion. An effective technique to use here would be a short panel disucssion using both teachers and teacher-aides on the panel.

In presenting the lesson on addition of fractions, try to involve each one in the actual working of the examples, working with objects, and using illustrations. In each of the steps, choose one of the participants to illustrate the concept to the rest of the group. As each phase is being done, it should be related back to the discussion on procedure.

D. Materials Needed:

Flannel board with fraction cutouts

Fraction charts

Concrete objects such as sticks, paper discs, apples, or other objects that could be divided into parts

Number lines divided into fractional parts

Paper and pencils for participants

Blackboard

E. Content of Lesson

The first step involved when going into a new concept in arithmetic should be the relating of the concept to things within the experiences of the children. For example, if an operation on fractions is being introduced, a discussion on how the children have used fractions in their experiences would be helpful in creating interest and showing a need for the operation.

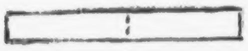
In the presentation of the new concept, a certain order of procedure must be followed. This order involves two ideas that operate together as the lesson proceeds.

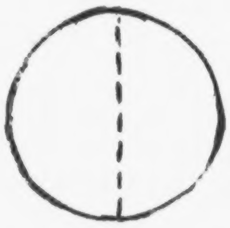
PART ONE: PRINCIPLES FROM CONCRETE TO ABSTRACT

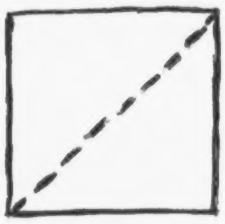
Concrete Objects

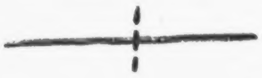
Starting with the use of concrete objects will allow children to make many discoveries of relationships on their own. Almost anything in the classroom can become a teaching aid in the discovery of these relationships. The dividing of an apple, matching children and seats and playing number games are some examples of these activities. Teachers and teacher-aides need to be aware of these many opportunities in order to guide the thinking and supply the number ideas involved.

Starting with concrete objects leads to thinking in terms of relationships instead of abstractions. When a child thinks one-half, he might mentally see





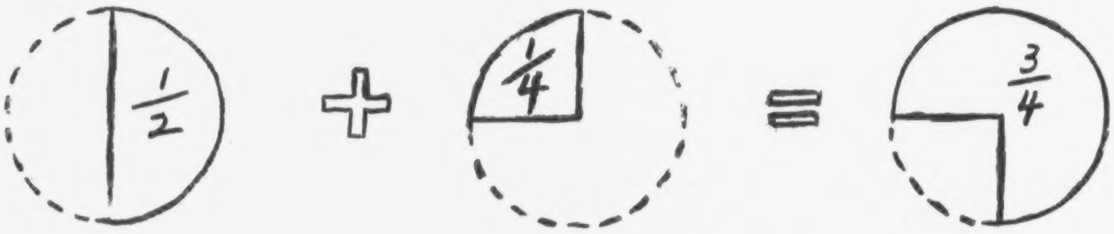




instead of just the numeral 1/2.

Visualization Step

The visual step consists of illustrations and is usually presented by the teacher to reinforce or clarify the relationships of the concrete step. The teacher might use a flannel board, the blackboard, charts, or any of a great variety of other illustrations. In illustrating the addition of 1/2 and 1/4, a fractional cutout might be used on a flannel board in the following manner.



Abstract Step.

The visual step not only relates back to the concrete step but ties in to the abstract step. This abstract step deals with the symbols involved in expressing number ideas. The numerals do not resemble in any way the quantities represented. This relationship has to be formed by associating the symbols with concrete objects and illustrations if the abstractions are to have any meaning. Once this meaning is established, then the operations and the manner in which numbers behave under certain circumstances take on meaning.

FROM SIMPLE TO COMPLEX

Another basic principle to remember in presenting a new concept is to start with the most simple exercises in the concept and gradually build step by step to the most complicated. Too often, the whole range of exercises are presented at the same time and leads to confusion on the part of the learners. In addition of fractions again, a simple exercise such as 1/3 + 1/3 should not be presented along with a more difficult exercise such as 2 5/9 + 3 9/13. Many "lead up" steps should go between the two.

DRILL AND PRACTICE

In the past, drill and practice have been used many times as the whole package of arithmetic instruction. In an effort to get away from this and get in more meaning, there is a danger of not having enough drill and practice.

After the concept is formed on a particular operation and meaning attached, meaningful drill and practice are needed to develop speed and accuracy. This could be called forming a habit in thinking. For anyone who has worked extensively with numbers, it is almost impossible to think of 1/2 + 1/4 without also thinking 3/4. This type of thinking comes with much use.

PART TWO: ARITHMETIC EXERCISES
(Addition of Fractions)

The following exercise on fractions is presented to illustrate some of the basic principles studied in part one. In presenting this to elementary children, an extended period of several days would be needed. The overall presentation here might be viewed as a unit of instruction with each phase viewed as a subunit. During each subunit, the particular type would be applied in situations to further develop meanings if this were being taught in the elementary classroom. The purpose here is to show the sequence and some of the illustrations and activities involved in developing the concept.

Each succeeding type uses the ideas presented in the types before with some added feature which make it somewhat more difficult. The illustrations and activities used should be realted to the abstract symbols and this should form the basis for pointing up generalizations such as adding the numerators and writing the result over the denominator or the reduction process.

(a) The simplest type of addition exercise is made up of two fractions with like denominators which, when added together, need nothing further done to the result. Illustrate the following exercises by the use of fractional cutouts. Also use objects that can be divided if these are available.

$$\begin{array}{cccccccc} \frac{1}{5} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{7} & \frac{2}{5} & \frac{2}{7} & \frac{3}{5} & \frac{2}{7} & \frac{2}{5} \\ \underline{+\frac{1}{5}} & \underline{+\frac{1}{3}} & \underline{+\frac{1}{7}} & \underline{+\frac{1}{5}} & \underline{+\frac{1}{7}} & \underline{+\frac{1}{5}} & \underline{+\frac{3}{7}} & \underline{+\frac{2}{5}} \end{array}$$

Point out in this type that in each exercise it is only necessary to add the numerators and write the result over the denominator.

(b) Another step up is the addition of two fractions with like denominators which, when added, need something further done to the result. Illustrate this type by the use of fraction charts.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{6} & \frac{5}{6} & \frac{1}{8} \\ \underline{+\frac{1}{4}} & \underline{+\frac{1}{2}} & \underline{+\frac{1}{4}} & \underline{+\frac{3}{4}} & \underline{+\frac{2}{3}} & \underline{+\frac{2}{3}} & \underline{+\frac{1}{6}} & \underline{+\frac{1}{6}} & \underline{+\frac{1}{8}} \end{array}$$

In this type exercise, the additional learning of changing the results to simplest form is presented. This involves three different types of results; reduction to lowest terms as in 2/4, changing to a whole number as 3/3; and changing to a mixed number as in 4/3. These processes should also be illustrated with cutouts or fraction charts.

(c) Another step up includes fractions in which the denominators are unlike but one of them is the common denominator as 1/4 + 3/8. Illustrate the following examples by the use of the number lines.

$$\begin{array}{cccccccc} \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{3}{4} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{2} \\ +\frac{1}{8} & +\frac{1}{4} & +\frac{1}{8} & +\frac{1}{6} & +\frac{3}{8} & +\frac{3}{4} & +\frac{5}{6} & +\frac{1}{6} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

In these examples, the learnings from the first two types are used plus the additional one of changing to like denominators before adding.

(d) Going up another step, the denominators are unlike and have no common factor. Illustrate the following by use of fractional cutouts.

$$\begin{array}{cccccccc} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} & \frac{2}{3} & \frac{3}{4} \\ +\frac{1}{3} & +\frac{1}{4} & +\frac{3}{4} & +\frac{2}{3} & +\frac{1}{5} & +\frac{1}{4} & +\frac{3}{5} & +\frac{1}{3} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

in this type will be needed the competencies learned in the first three types plus the additional feature of having unrelated denominators.

(e) By this time, enough generalizations should have been learned to go into the slightly more difficult examples without illustrations or working with objects. The more difficult include more than two addends, more difficult unrelated denominators, and fractions with whole numbers or mixed numbers. Random illustrations or activities may be used if needed. Do the following examples, using illustrations only if felt needed.

$$\begin{array}{cccccccc} & & \frac{1}{3} & & & \frac{5}{6} & 2\frac{2}{3} & \\ \frac{1}{5} & \frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{2} & 2\frac{1}{2} & 5 & \frac{1}{4} & 3\frac{1}{2} & \frac{5}{6} \\ +\frac{1}{6} & +\frac{3}{7} & +\frac{1}{4} & +\frac{1}{3} & +3\frac{1}{2} & +\frac{1}{3} & +\;2\frac{3}{4} & +\frac{3}{7} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

(f) Now that the concept has been formed by the use of activities and illustrations, drill and practice are needed for speed, accuracy, and ease of working examples. Following is a list of drill and practice examples composed of a sampling of each of the foregoing types. See how rapidly and accurately you can work them.

$$\begin{array}{r} \frac{1}{5} \\ \frac{2}{5} \\ + \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} \frac{1}{5} \\ +\frac{2}{5} \\ \hline \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{r} \frac{1}{3} \\ +\frac{1}{3} \\ \hline \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{r} \frac{3}{4} \\ +\frac{3}{4} \\ \hline \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{r} \frac{1}{4} \\ +\frac{3}{4} \\ \hline \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{r} \frac{5}{6} \\ +\frac{5}{6} \\ \hline \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{r} \frac{3}{8} \\ +\frac{1}{4} \\ \hline \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{r} \frac{1}{2} \\ +\frac{3}{4} \\ \hline \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{r} \frac{3}{7} \\ +\frac{1}{3} \\ \hline \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{r} \frac{1}{6} \\ +\frac{2}{5} \\ \hline \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{r} 4\frac{2}{3} \\ +5 \\ \hline \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{r} 3 \\ +4\frac{5}{6} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 2\frac{1}{2} \\ +3\frac{3}{4} \\ \hline \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{r} 5\frac{5}{6} \\ +3\frac{2}{3} \\ \hline \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{r} \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{3} \\ +\frac{1}{4} \\ \hline \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{r} 2\frac{1}{3} \\ 3\frac{2}{3} \\ +4\frac{1}{2} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Discussing things teacher-aides can do in connection with arithmetic instruction would be an effective way to end the class discussion. Following are a few suggestions and these can be supplemented from the class.

1. Preparing arithmetic teaching aids
2. Filing or storing teaching aids
3. Playing number games with groups both in the classroom and on the playground.
4. Calling attention to number ideas when the occasion presents itself.
5. Helping individuals during arithmetic instruction clear up trouble spots through illustrations.
6. Helping with correct formation of numerals
7. Checking drill and practice

G. Follow-Up Activities:

Using a different concept, the addition of whole numbers, do the following:

(1) Arrange some examples in this concept from simple to complex as was done in the examples in this lesson.

(2) Suggest some concrete objects that could be used in this concept.

(3) Suggest some teaching aids the teacher might use to illustrate this concept.

H. Evaluation

Respond to the following. On the Yes or No response, give an explanation of your choice.

1. Cutting a pie is a good illustration when working with fractions.
   Yes________________ No________________
   Explain____
   ____

2. The number line would be an example of a concrete teaching aid. Yes___
   No________ Explain____________________________________
   ____

3. The fractions 1/4 and 1/8 are related fractions. Yes____________
   No____________ Explain________________________________
   ____

4. The only reason teaching aids and activities are used in the classroom is to prevent the children from becoming bored. Yes____________
   No________ Explain____________________________________
   ____

5. Drill and practice in arithmetic should be used to develop a concept.
   Yes________ No________ Explain__________________________
   ____

6. The simplest example in addition of fractions is 1/2 + 1/2. Yes_____
   No__________ Explain__________________________________
   ____

7. Illustrations by the teacher should come before working with concrete objects in the development of a new concept in arithmetic. Yes______
   No____________ Explain________________________________
   ____

8. (Underline the correct answer) Dividing an apple equally among four children is an example of working with (1) concrete objects (2) visual illustrations (3) abstract materials.

9. (Underline the correct answer) Using the number line is an example of (1) concrete objects (2) visual illustrations (3) abstract materials.

10. Arrange the following from the simplest to the most difficult:
    1/4 + 1/2, 1/5 + 2/5, 3/4 + 2/3 __________________________

Suggested Readings

Dutton, Wilbur H., and Hockett, John A. The Modern Elementary School. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1965 Chapter 9.

Grossnickle, Foster E. Et. Al. Discovering Meanings in Elementary School Mathematics. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1968.

Hollister, George E., and Gunderson, Agnes G. Teaching Arithmetic in the Primary Grades. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1964.

"It is difficult to practice consideration toward those below oneself when one is denied the same treatment from above." Norman R.F. Maier

LESSON XIII

BUSINESS POINTERS FOR TEACHER-AIDES

A. Description of Lesson:

The content of Lesson XII is divided into three major parts: (1) Operation of the Mineograph, (2) Operation of the Liquid Duplicator, and (3) Personality Hints. In Part 1, Operation of the Mimeograph, we learn to cut a stencil, prepare the mimeograph machine, put paper into the mimeograph, ink the machine, change ink pads, file the stencils, and close and cover the mimeograph machine. In Part 2, Operation of the Liquid Duplicator, we learn about various liquid duplicating systems, about correcting errors on ditto masters, and about operating the liquid duplicating machine. In Part 3, Personality Hints, we consider ways to influence people and to get along with fellow office workers.

B. Purposes of Lesson:

(1) To learn to cut a stencil

(2) To learn to operate a mimeograph

(3) To learn to type ditto masters

(4) To learn to operate liquid duplicator machines

(5) To learn how to influence people in an office situation

C. Assignment of Personnel: (Is applicable only if a director is assigned to conduct regularly scheduled training sessions.)

Lesson XIII should be conducted in a high school building where typewriters and duplicating machines are available. A business teacher in the high school should conduct this session.

D. Materials Needed:

Stencils, stencil cleaner, mimeograph machine, mimeograph ink, ditto masters, ditto machine, ditto machine fluid.

E. Content of Lesson:

1. OPERATION OF THE MIMEOGRAPH

Preparing to Cut a Stencil

Stencils can be attached to mimeograph machines when several hundred copies of a sheet of information need to be made.

Before cutting a stencil, make a rough copy of the materials to be duplicated. The keys of the typewriter should be cleaned with a little type cleaner or with a stiff brush. The ribbon indicator on a typewriter shows red, blue, and white. Turn it to "white" when you are ready to cut a stencil.

Place the stencil in the typewriter. Be sure that it is correctly aligned. Then go ahead and type the prepared copy. Type slowly and evenly. After you have "cut" the stencil, proofread the "job" before removing the stencil from the typewriter. Place the stencil on Mimeoscope illuminated drawing board and add any writing, signatures, or drawings desired. If a mistake is discovered, rub the mistake area with a paper clip, then cover the mistake with mimeograph correction fluid. Blow on the correction fluid until it is dry, then type the correct information on the stencil.

Any fluid cleaner should be used sparingly on the typewriter keys.

There are a number of different types of stencils available on the market. Some are green, black, and even orange in color. Be sure to remove the cushion sheet before "cutting" the stencil. Most stencils come in two sizes: 8½" x 14½" which gives a duplicating surface of 7½" x 14". Small stencils for postcard messages are available to run on small special inexpensive mimeograph machines designed for this purpose.

When you type or draw on the stencil, the waxy coating is pushed on each side and the fibers are exposed in the shape of the written or typed characters. The ink from the drum of the mimeograph, when the stencil is affixed to the machine, prints through the exposed openings and results in printed copy.

Preparing the Mimeograph Machine

Newer mimeograph machines keep coming on the market. However, most machines work similarly. To prepare the mimeograph for operation, release the brake by turning it to the left. Loosen the end clamp at the right side of the machine, remove the free end of the protective cover sheet, and close the end clamp. This can be done with the right palm as you turn the cylinder clockwise until the head clamp reaches the "Stop Here" indicator at the top of the machine. Open the head clamp and remove the protective cover completely. If the condition of the protective cover is such that it can be used again, place it, inky side up, on newspapers completely out of the way.

PLACING THE STENCIL ON THE MIMEOGRAPH--Hold your stencil in your right hand and drop it into the head clamp as far as it will go so that the top of the stencil is in evenly. Then close the head clamp, using the palm of your left hand. Separate the stencil from the backing sheet and tear off the backing sheet and tear along the perforation which should be right at the edge of the backing head.

Using both hands, step to the right of the mimeograph, grasp the stencil evenly and pull it straight downward over the cylinder. The edge of the stencil should be parallel to the edge of the drum and the side margin should look even with the sides of the drum. If it appears to be crooked, pull up the stencil and try again. Correction fluid may be applied directly to the stencil on the cylinder if ink seeps through the cut lines. In some instances, scotch tape may be used for this purpose, but it does not always adhere well to the waxy surface of the stencil.

Operate the mimeograph with a clean cloth handy. Keep the machine clean and you won't get yourself as dirty.

Putting Paper into the Mimeograph

Paper should be evenly stacked when it is placed in the machine or the copies will tend to wrinkle and to feed unevenly. Insert the paper evenly in the machine as far as it will go, then close the retainer rails. The retainer pads should be adjusted so that they exert a slight pull on the paper.

The first sheet of paper to be run through the mimeograph should be used to determine whether the margins are correctly spaced, if enough ink is on the pad, or if ink is leaking through scratches or excess holes. Correction fluid can usually be used to block out undesired marks.

Start the mimeograph machine by turning the motor switch to the right. Adjust the paper vertically and horizontally until it is perfectly centered. On some machines, simply turn the print adjustment knob (located on the lower front of the machine) clockwise to raise and counter-clockwise to lower the print on the finished copy. Often the machine will have an "R" for "Raise" and an "L" for "Lower". On such machines you have little over an inch that your copy can be raised or lowered once the stencil is on the mimeograph. On newer models, the raise or lower lever is at the back of the machines. Horizontal adjustments cannot be made except by moving the paper feed gauges and retainers toward the side with the smallest margin.

The paper feed mechanism should pick up only one piece of paper at a time and force it forward against the paper stops until a slight buckle in the paper appears just before the drum pulls the paper through the machine. The receiving tray at the right of the machine may be a loose basket that is held in place solely by the weight of the basket. Adjusting it requires only a push to one side or the other--a pull lengthens it. Some machines have automatic slip-sheeting devices. Some mimeographs have a counter which numbers the copies being reproduced.

Inking the Machine

If your first copy has light sports, hand feed a piece of paper into the machine, turn the drum over so that the dry spot is on the paper, and depress the ink lever and hold it down until you think the dry spot is inked, turn the cylinder very slowly by hand and repeat the operation if necessary. The run-off copy will be very messy, but it will clear up if you run a few scratch sheets through the machine.

If the inking of your copy produces no better results, the stencilizing of the stencil may have been faulty or the duplicator may be low on ink. To check the ink supply, turn the drum upside down and unscrew the ink cap. Insert the measuring rod to see if the machine has enough ink. If the supply is lower than the refill mark on the measuring rod, empty a can of ink into the opening. Be sure you are adding the correct ink. To facilitate the draining of ink into the cylinder, punch an air hole into the bottom of the metal can with a screwdriver or some sharp instrument.

Changing Ink Pads

Ink pads should be changed when it appears that the mimeograph needs inking too frequently. Unfasten old cloth ink pad at the bottom after you have pulled the ink pad lever out. Turn the cylinder just enough to enable you to release the head clamp lever. Put on the brake to be sure the cylinder doesn't turn. Open the head clamp lever as wide as possible. Remove the ink pad, wrap it in paper, and discard it. Place the new cloth ink pad with its fuzzy side down next to the cylinder and drop the metal end into the position of the old pad. Pull tight with the right hand and push the head clamp shut with your left hand. Then stretch the pad tight and straight over the cylinder so that all the ink openings are covered. After this, open the end clamp, lift the ink pad lever, and engage the holes in the metal end of the ink pad and the hooks on the drum. Push the ink pad lever into correct position and put the new protective cover on the drum. Finally close the end clamp.

Filing the Stencils

All stencils for which a future use is needed should be prepared for filing. Throw away stencils which will not be used again. It is a good idea to save stencils temporarily, however, for one never knows when just a few more copies will be needed.

Regular absorbent filing wrappers are available as part of mimeographing supplies. Open the absorbent wrapper, lay the stencil (inky side up) on the right half of the wrapper, but be careful to avoid wrinkling. Press the top side of the folder down over the inky stencil, and with some heavy object, run across the face of the wrapper with a circular motion in order to absorb the ink from the stencil.

Leaving the Mimeograph

When you are through running your particular job, the stencil duplicator must be covered, the drum left in correct position, all ink spots removed from the machine, and all papers and other equipment put away. The protective cover of the mimeograph machine which was removed at the very beginning, should be replaced on the mimeograph.

II. OPERATION OF THE LIQUID DUPLICATOR

Liquid Duplicating Systems

Liquid duplicators are those rotary-type machines that use a master sheet upon which is drawn, written, or typed copy. The carbon deposit appears on the back side of the master sheet. This deposit when contacted by moistened duplicator paper will offset the copy onto the desired paper. The master from which the copies are made is prepared by typing, writing, or drawing through a sheet of white master paper to a carbon. The carbon appears in copy form on the BACK of the original sheet. The copies are made by dissolving a part of this carbon or dye deposit by means of a liquid chemical called duplicating fluid. The liquid duplicating machine is the mechanical means or vehicle which brings the master and the moistened paper together to produce the copy.

The fluid is one of the most popular processes on the market today for short runs because of the ease of preparation of masters and operation of the machine. The most popular brands are DITTO, STANDARD, HEYER, A.B. DICK AZOGRAPH, COPY RITE, and VARI-COLOR. Masters are easily prepared with colored carbons. You can write, draw, or type masters. They may be filed and used over again. Corrections are easily made.

Although each company which manufactures liquid duplicators and supplies recommends the use of its particular master and copy paper, you can with reasonable success interchange the master, copy paper, and even the fluid. Liquid duplicators are not designed to run a great many copies (mimeograph and offset machines cover this field), but they will run up to 350 and 500 copies, depending upon the kind of machine, the type of master, the preparation of the master, and the care exercised in running the duplicator.

The liquid duplicator master is typed with the ribbon in normal position. The entire surface of the 8½" x 11" master sheet may be used with the exception of three spaces for the line clamp margin at one end. Master sheets have no warning lines, as do mimeograph stencils, so the masters should be pre-planned. Whether the copy is double or single spaced will depend upon the amount of copy received. The copy should be checked word for word to see that no errors have been made.

See that the type on the typewriter is clean. Use any good liquid cleaner and wire brush. Check on the back side of the master sheet frequently to see if the carbon deposit resulting from your type is satisfactory. Electric typewriters give an even touch that is difficult to equal on a standard typewriter. As a rule, portable typewriters do not cut good liquid duplicator masters and stencils. Leave the ribbon lever in REGULAR position. Do NOT change it to "stencil" position.

Correcting Errors on Ditto Masters

It is possible to correct errors so well that they are undetectable. There are several different methods of making corrections, as follows:

1. The razor blade or scratch method: Errors are corrected on the carbon side. Take a razor blade or a very sharp knife and gently scrape off ALL of the carbon deposit on the wrong letter or word. DO NOT make any attempt to correct the front side of the master. DO NOT break the surface of the paper or a poor correction will result. Tear off a piece of clean DITTO carbon. Insert this piece of carbon, shiny side toward you, roll the platen back to the correct position, type the correction lightly, then backspace and type it lightly again. Then remove the piece of carbon.

2. The DITTO pencil correction method: Errors are corrected on the carbon side of the master. Take a ditto correction pencil and rub lightly over the error--the carbon will smear, but in reality you are spreading a waxy surface over the face of the carbon. Insert a piece of clean carbon in the correct position, roll the platen to the typing line, strike the

correction lightly, backspace, strike the correction again, and remove the piece of carbon.

Preparing the Liquid Duplicator

Take off the machine cover. Open the master clamp. To insert a master onto the machine, hold one end of the copy and insert the free end into the CLAMP OPENING, and then close the clamp. Be careful that the right hand does not come in direct contact with the carbon deposit on the master. Avoid touching any of the carbon or it will smear. It is absolutely necessary that the sheet go into the opening evenly, or wrinkles will be folded into the paper. Place the master carbon side "up" on the machine.

The rubber wheels on the ditto machine's automatic feed unit should be cleaned occasionally with a clean cloth dampened with ditto fluid.

When running the machine, turn the motor on, put the pressure on, place a supply of copy paper in the feed tray, move the fluid control lever to the highest position. Hand feed a sheet of blank paper through the machine and note the fluid pattern. If wide dry streaks are noted, repeat the drum revolutions until the fluid pattern shows only small streaks. Then run off the desired number of copies.

When you are through using the ditto machine, set the FLUID and the PRESSURE CONTROL levers to OFF position.

Horizontal adjustments are most easily made on liquid duplicator machines by releasing the master sheet from the drum and moving it to the right or left and then again locking it into position.

III. PERSONALITY HINTS

A recent survey indicates that two thirds of all job dismissals are due to personality difficulties and not to a lack of technical know-how. A man's idea of feminine beauty requires a well-rounded but not fat figure. A man enjoys being accepted. His ego is much more vulnerable than a woman's, so he is attracted to the girl who seems to be happy and self-confident. A man wants a girl who is kind, tender, thoughtful, gentle and morally stable. A man enjoys comfort so he wants a woman who can put him at his ease. He wants a woman who doesn't get flustered. He wants a woman to be mentally alert, but he doesn't want her to wear her knowledge on her sleeve. He wants her to be physically able but he likes her to wait until he can pull the chair out for her, help her into her coat, and in other ways assist her. A man has a more sensitive sense of smell than a woman and this leads him to be attracted to the girl who makes the most of her attractiveness by being scrubbed and polished. Her hair is clean and sweet smelling. A woman should be easy on the eyes, be happy and self-confident, be feminine, tender, kind, and thoughtful, poised, dependent, and well groomed. Women should have a happy face, modulated voice, and graceful movements.

Andrew Carnegie said, "No amount of ability is of the slightest avail without honor." Good office traits are: honesty, sincerity, loyalty, fair dealings, integrity, and tolerance. A woman should be enthusiastic about her work, should have a positive attitude, imagination, initiative, agressiveness, friendliness, good manners, good grooming, and good personal habits. She should accept people despite their shortcomings and should recognize people by name. Put yourself in your boss' shoes and try to make him feel successful too.

In the office, don't be tardy. Get to work on time. Use your employer's name and title. "Mr. Smith will see you now." Let your employer take the lead; do not dominate. Never let your employer's mood ruffle your feathers. Be loyal to your employer and don't unload your annoyances on the ready ears of your fellow employees. Think of trying situations as challenges rather than holocausts.

Be friendly with your co-workers but not familiar. Keep your private life out of the office or school. Treat repairmen and other personnel with the same friendly manner you use with your employer and your customers.

Use correct grammar and clear speech, sound cheerful and alert. Show enthusiasm, be courteous.

In applying for a job, wear a simple style basic dress with a reasonably high neckline. Wear conservative jewelry, and nylon hosiery (not bobby sox). Wear gloves, simple pump shoes, and carry a handbag. Bring a resume which will list pertinent data. Be certain your hair and hands are well-groomed and neat. Plan on doing without a cigarette until after the interview.

Your resume should include your name, address, phone number, educational background, work experiences, hobbies, clubs, interests, occupational goals, names and addresses of former employers and of responsible persons other than relatives to whom the interviewer could write for references about you.

During an interview, answer the questions thoroughly, then listen to what the interviewer has to say. Do not sit down unless it is obvious the interviewer expects you to do so. Don't lean on Mr. Jones' desk. Don't fidget. Don't ask personal questions until you have been hired. It is permissible to say how much you want if the interviewer asks you, but it is wise to leave some room for bargaining. Don't appear to be choosey, standoffish or hard-to-get. Usually the interviewer will close the interview. Then get up and leave. If the interviewer does not get in touch with you later, it is acceptable for the applicant to ask how soon her application will be decided upon. A day after the interview, it is good manners to send a short note of appreciation for the interview.

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"Whoso neglects learning in his youth, loses the past and is dead for the future." Sophocles

LESSON XIV

TEACHER-AIDES HELP TEACHERS WITH LEARNING ACTIVITIES FOR CHILDREN WHO LEARN SLOWLY

A. Description of Lesson:

Lesson XIV is designed to point-up the need for teacher-aides to help in the instructional program for children who have learning difficulties in the classroom. The lesson places primary importance on the teacher to prescribe and evaluate the learning activities of slow-rate children, but it outlines the various ways that teacher-aides can help the children by having close contacts with them. Characteristics of children with potential learning problems are presented.

B. Purposes of Lesson:

(1) To point-up the need for a partnership role between teacher and teacher-aide.

(2) To stress the need for continuous supervision of children who have learning difficulties.

(3) To outline the characteristics of slow-rate learners.

(4) To emphasize the role of the teacher when teacher-aides are employed to work closely with children who have learning difficulties.

(5) To discuss the role of the teacher-aide in working with slow-rate children.

C. Assignment of Personnel:

Teachers and administrators should attend this session both as participants and as part of the audience. It is recommended that either a consultant be brought in from outside the school system or a special education teacher in the school system discuss the needs of children who have learning difficulties. To supplement the report of the needs of slow-rate learners, it would be effective to have teams of teachers and teacher-aides to plan and work together in classrooms in the weeks prior to this session. The teams could then give their reports at this session.

D. Materials Needed:

The person conducting the session may choose his own method of visual presentation. It should be noted that there are unlimited audio-visual materials, such as films and filmstrips that are available in this area.

E. Content of Lesson:

The number of slow-rate learners in our nation's schools is difficult to determine with accuracy. It is safe to say, however, that in every school there are numerous children who achieve at a much slower rate than do most of the other children and that these children require special help.

To help children who are working below grade level, teachers have sought out new materials and have employed different methods of instruction. Their efforts, however, either have been effective or ineffective depending upon the ability of the teachers to know what should be done and upon the receptiveness of the children to the approaches used to help them.

Since the teacher is the important key to the education of each child, it is necessary that this time be used wisely. Obviously, there are not enough hours in the school day for the teacher to give each child sufficient time for individualized tutoring. Therefore, a good indicator of how wisely the teacher is spending his time may be to observe how teacher-aides are integrated as partners in the instructional team. As partners to the classroom teacher, teacher-aides could work with children in the classroom under the close supervision of the teacher and according to instructional procedures carefully outlined by the teacher.

Many times, slow-rate learners are plunged into remedial work for which they either are unprepared or for which continuous supervision is essential for progress. To help the affected children overcome these barriers, teacher-aides could be assigned to supervise the learning tasks of children who have difficulties and in some instances they may become actively involved in their learning activities.

The degree to which slow-rate learners are retarded is usually determined by comparing their development and growth with that of other children who are at or beyond their grade level. It is common to place the greatest emphasis on the mental development. However, the master teacher uses every available means in the diagnosis of the slow-rate learners' needs and then plan prescriptive measures.

Based on the information gathered, the teacher must be prepared to make important decisions for each child, such as:

1. The teacher must decide whether the child is mentally retarded or if there are other factors affecting his ability to learn.

2. The teacher must decide what type of special help is required for each slow-rate learner.

3. The teacher must decide whether the special help can be administered in the regular classroom or whether special teachers should be utilized.

4. The teacher must decide what methods and materials to use with each slow-rate learner who remains in the classroom.

5. The teacher must plan for the involvement of teacher-aides in the remedial activities planned for slow-rate learners.

6. The teacher and teacher-aide must be alert to the slow-rate learner's special interests and to any emotional or physical defects that may block his growth through remedial instruction.

7. The teachers and the teacher-aides must acquire information concerning the conditions in the slow-rate learner's home and community environment that may block his growth in remedial instruction.

There are many behavioral clues which teachers and teacher-aides may observe as indicators of whether the child needs special help:

1. Lacks interest in learning activities.

2. Lacks independent work study skills.

3. Learns more through discussion and listening than through reading on his own.

4. Reads materials that are below grade level.

5. Last one to complete assigned task.

6. Maintains that the work is too difficult.

7. Show symptoms of eye or ear difficulties.

8. Remembers little of what he has studied.

9. Is unable to generalize from what has been studied.

10. Shows emotional disturbances and nervous tensions when studying.

11. Dislikes school.

12. Shows difficulties in doing well in standardized tests or informal checks.

13. Makes academic progress below that expected of him.

Until recently, the school dropout was considered a problem for the professional staff in secondary schools. It is now recognized that many children become a psychological dropout early in their school years and wait only for the time they are old enough to leave school. Certainly, most slow-rate learners are conditioned to leaving school at the earliest moment possible although many do stay in after reaching the age for voluntary withdrawal.

If any potential dropout is not reached in his years spent in the elementary school, there is little hope that he will succeed in school after reaching the secondary school grades. In his elementary school years, the potential dropout has one teacher for the entire school year which gives each teacher an opportunity to observe him in many situations and to plan individual work. In the secondary schools, the student may have as many as five or six teachers every day.

For teachers and teacher-aides in secondary schools, an extended list of characteristics of potential dropouts has been developed:

1. Consistent failure to achieve in regular school work.
2. Grade level placement two or more years below average age for grade.
3. Irregular attendance and frequent tardiness.
4. Overt antagonism to teachers and principals and becomes a discipline problem.
5. Dislikes school coupled with feeling of not belonging.
6. Low scholastic aptitude, usually caused by low reading rate.
7. Non-acceptance by school staff and by other children.
8. Friends much older or younger.
9. Unhappy family situation.
10. Marked difference from schoolmates in size, interests, physique, social class, nationality, dress or personality development.
11. Inability to do as well as his brothers or sisters.
12. Non-participation in extra-curricular activities.
13. Inability to pay for things like his schoolmates buy.
14. Performance in all areas consistently below normal.
15. Serious physical or emotional handicaps.
16. Record of delinquency.

There is nothing inherently interesting in the subject matter that is taught in our schools; so subject matter becomes meaningful only as each student determines whether it is necessary to his educational plans. Many teachers in fact, know that if students were given a freedom of selection, they would elect to do other things than what the teacher prescribes. Knowing that children cannot get up and leave the classroom, some teachers make no attempt to make the subject matter interesting.

There are many ways in which teachers can help to make subject matter more interesting and the involvement of teacher-aides can serve the teachers in their efforts. Teacher-aides could explore community resources and supply the teachers with their requests for enrichment materials. Teacher-aides may help children with special reports and library assignments. The teacher-aides can set-up demonstrations, get instructional materials ready for the teacher and/or the children to use in the classroom.

Most children come to school with a desire to learn; but a few children do not. Some teachers believe that children are automatically motivated to do whatever the teacher wants them to do which means that children who do what the teachers wants them to do are motivated and the others are not. Teacher-aides may guide children toward the desirable goals set-up by the teacher. Teacher-aides may support the teacher in his efforts of motivating children:

1. Keep content at level of the learner.
2. Explain the reason for doing things in a particular way.
3. Help students set attainable goals.
4. Provide the student with feedback on his efforts as soon as possible.
5. Give recognition to the student as he completes or performs in learning activities.
6. Allow the student opportunity to deviate from what other children are doing by giving him some freedom to choose his task.
7. Provide guidance so that the learner will be able to proceed toward his goal.
8. Reward children quickly.

An indispensable function of all teachers is to help children develop the skills which are necessary to success in the school. The work study skills in the schools provide children with the tools to tackle the content areas in the schools. Examples of work study skills are reading, spelling, and arithmetic. Examples of content areas are science and social sciences. In the elementary school, it is unrealistic to assume that children should devote the equal amount of time in content areas as in work study. It should be recognized, too, that many children never master the work study skills during the regularly planned classroom sessions. Unless remedial work is successful, therefore, they also will fail in their efforts to grow in the content areas. Teacher-aides can provide the helping hand that will benefit slow-rate learners in remedial instruction.

Teacher-aides can provide many useful functions in the classroom to help children with special assignments that have been outlined by the teachers:

1. Listen to slow-rate learners as they read and tell them words they do not know and keep an accurate record of these words for the teacher.
2. Prepare, pronounce, and show flash cards.
3. Help children in their improvement of study habits.
4. Help supervise seat work.

5. Make-up games for children to play while reveiwing drill work, such as number facts.

6. Help children with library work.

7. Administer S.R.A. materials and other programmed materials.

8. Work with slow-rate children on a regularly planned schedule.

9. Work problems for children on chalkboard.

10. Provide children with a sense of belonging in the classroom.

11. Praise children for their determined efforts to learn.

12. Demonstrate the importance of the schools.

Most schools have instructional programs which are adequate for a vast majority of students. However, there is a substantial number of children who are impeded by home conditions, by lack of background experiences and by other reasons. Schools can no longer ignore slow-rate learners. In schools where teacher-aides are employed, the opportunities are unlimited for teachers to plan remedial instructional activities and then actively involve in helping to carry them out. This section has been designed to reveal possibilities in the development of the team approach to the utilization of teacher-aides in the schools. Administrators of every school system have their own reasons for establishing employment patterns for teacher-aides which dictate how and where they will be employed in their system. No administrator, however, should overlook the benefits of utilizing teacher-aides in remedial work for slow-rate learners.

F. Follow-Up Activity:

For practice in observation skills, learn the characteristics of slow-rate learners and potential drop-outs. Then when you have opportunities to observe, attempt to identify children who seemingly belong to one group or both. After you identify a few children, ask yourself what it is that they need to become better students. Remembering that the teachers are specialists, visit with them about the identified children; so that you gain insight into the planning that they do to take care of individual differences in children.

"Teachers must have a team of people working with them to relieve them of some of their non-teaching duties if they are going to have time to perform successfully their primary task - teaching." Grant Venn

LESSON XV

ASSIGNMENT OF MONITORIAL AND ROUTINE TASKS TO TEACHER-AIDES

A. Description of Lesson:

Monitorial and routine tasks refer to time consuming duties that take a great deal of the teacher's time, but normally require little or no specialized training to master. The supposition is projected that if non-professional personnel assume the responsibility for carrying out the various monitorial and routine tasks, teachers will have more time to spend on the highly sophisticated functions in teaching. This lesson provides an outline of the many duties that every teacher-aide should be capable of carrying out after brief orientation periods and under constant supervision of a professional.

B. Purposes of Lesson:

(1) To present a wide array of monitorial and routine tasks areas for teacher-aides.

(2) To point up ways in which teacher-aides can develop the necessary skills and concepts in order to attain maximum effectiveness.

C. Assignment of Personnel: (Is applicable only if a director is assigned to conduct regularly scheduled training sessions)

Teachers and administrators should attend this session both as participants and as part of the audience. It would be highly desirable to have a representative from the state department of education address the participants relative to the legal status of teacher-aides and state guidelines for their utilization. A follow-up question and answer discussion would be beneficial to all personnel. This session will provoke an active interaction of thoughts and opinions by the participants.

D. Materials Needed:

The person who conducts the session should be encouraged to prepare transparencies for his presentation. Equally effective is a well-prepared handout, which can be used as a source for group discussion.

E. Content of Lesson:

INTRODUCTION

It should be emphasized that while teacher-aides assist in the instructional program, the responsibility for classroom teaching remains with the classroom teacher. In this sense teacher-aides are assisting professional personnel and do not require teacher certification. They are considered non-professional school employees who, nevertheless, perform vital supporting roles in the total school program.

It should be further emphasized that the legal responsibility of the professional certified personnel for the instruction and for the safety of the pupils, cannot be delegated to teacher-aides or to other non-certified personnel. In other words, a teacher-aide should not conduct the instructional program in the classroom, or elsewhere, in the absence of a regular professional person--neither for a day nor for an hour.

On the other hand, there are numerous tasks which can rightfully be assigned or designated to teacher-aides. Interestingly, some of these tasks are high level responsibilities while others are intermediate or low-level responsibilities. The assignment of these tasks to teacher-aides is subject to several factors such as:

1. nature of the teacher-aide
2. experience
3. ability or skill
4. facilities available

Routine and monitorial tasks normally fall within the category of low-level or intermediate level responsibilities.

MONITORIAL AND ROUTINE DUTIES

1. Collecting lunch and milk money.
2. Collecting and displaying materials for the teacher.
3. Collecting supplementary books and materials for teachers.
4. Correcting tests and preparing diagnositc profiles (Key furnished)
5. Collecting of special funds--(yearbook, picture, polio drive, etc.)
6. Correcting homework, workbooks, and reporting deficiencies.
7. Proofreading materials.
8. Attending to the procurement and return of audio-visual materials.
9. Routine telephone calls.
10. Distributing supplies and books.
11. Developing resource materials.
12. Requisitioning materials and supplies.
13. Filing correspondence, report forms, and pupil records.
14. Distributing specific materials for lessons and collecting the complete projects.

15. Ordering free materials--for classroom use.
16. Keeping attendence records.
17. Averaging academic scores and preparing report cards.
18. Assisting in the supervision of playground activities.
19. Assisting in the supervision of the classroom when a teacher is obliged to leave the room for short periods.
20. Arranging and assisting in the supervision of game activities on days of inclement weather.
21. Supervising clean-up time.
22. Supervising preparation for prevention of the soiling of clothing and desk in certain activities.
23. Assisting in accounting and inventory of classroom materials and supplies.
24. Assisting in library chores for teachers.
25. Assisting in seat work activities.
26. Assisting the librarian in certain activities.
27. Typing tests, cutting stencils and correspondence to parents at teachers' request.
28. Typing and distribution of mass communications.
29. Keeping record of books read by pupils.
30. Supervising the loading and unloading of school busses.
31. Duplication of instructional materials.
32. Attending to parental.permission forms, etc.
33. Displaying pupil work.
34. Developing bulletin boards.
35. Developing posters and notices.
36. Setting up seating charts.
37. Assisting in the attention of sick and injured children.
38. Telephoning parents regarding absent pupils.
39. Telephoning parents verifying notes of permission.

40. Assisting children in toilet training.

41. Orientation of new students.

42. Scoring tests within the realm of capability.

The assignment of monitorial and routine duties will vary with each school situation. In all probability, not all of the tasks mentioned would be assigned to teacher-aides in the same school and it is anticipated that other monitorial and routine tasks would be included as a part of the work assignments for other teacher-aides.

Teachers should avoid assigning teacher-aides to monitorial and routine tasks that are a basic part of the children's learning that comes through experience. For example, while a teacher-aide may help first grade children with the wraps in September, the children should have learned to be completely independent by the time they leave that grade in the spring. Over dependence on the aide will interfere with the learning processes.

Throughout the school, children should learn to respect property and to assume responsibility for the cleanliness and orderliness of the classroom. Housekeeping chores, such as feeding the fish, watering the flowers, dusting the erasers, cleaning the chalkboards, and cleaning up after work activities should be a basic part of their training. While teacher-aides may assume these duties occasionally, primary responsibility rests with the children in the classrooms. It is a good practice for the teacher to ask, "Is this a task that the children can do?" before assigning it to the teacher-aide.

While teacher-aides may be assigned responsibilities of correcting children's work, the teacher should assume an intermediary position of reviewing all work before it is handed back to the children.

The assignment of teacher-aides to monitorial and routine tasks does not minimize the importance of placing teacher-aides in the classrooms with teachers. It is not an excuse or reason for assigning teacher-aides to general work stations especially in the principal's office. While secretarial help for the principal is important to the efficient operation of a school, a teacher-aide assigned to the principal's office loses his identity as a helper to teachers.

TRAINING

The starting point for preparing teacher-aides to carry out monitorial and routine tasks is to prepare job descriptions for them and identify those duties that will be assigned. Then, through work experiences, teacher-aides should be gradually introduced to the tasks one or two at a time and have sufficient practice to learn the new tasks before being introduced to others.

Since teachers have certain ways they want things done, they should be the trainers of the aides assigned to them. Conceivably, the teacher-aide who works for two or more teachers may have to learn two or more ways to carry out the same task.

For teacher-aides as well as teachers, habit formation is a vital part of carrying out monitorial and routine tasks. It is extremely important, therefore, that teacher-aides learn the correct habits in the beginning; so they will not have to be learned later with the interference of bad habits.

It is expected that after teacher-aides relieve the teachers from many time consuming tasks that teachers will not spend less time in their job, but that they will use the time saved in other ways, such as guiding and instructing children individually, or plan more effective methods of teaching children.

The automatic assignment of teacher-aides to tasks supervised by teachers does not necessarily mean that the teacher-aides' time will be used to the best advantage. The following procedures are suggested to administrators and/or teachers of each school within the system as a way of determining what monitorial and routine duties should be assigned to teacher-aides:

1. Make a list of monitorial and routine tasks or activities carried out by the teacher(s) in the school on a weekly basis. (This may be done by each teacher individually or by the entire staff working together.)

2. Then, ask the question about each task or activity--Is this something that a teacher-aide can do under my direction or supervision? Identify the topics in three ways--(1) those that the aide cannot do (those that remain with teacher or the pupils), (2) those that the teacher-aide can do, and (3) those that the teacher and teacher-aide can do together.

3. Place the topics that each teacher-aide can either do by himself or with the teacher in a rank order of importance. (For example, it might be decided that preparing duplicated materials is more important than checking papers).

4. Compare the time that the different tasks will take to complete with the amount of time the teacher-aide has available with each teacher and then decide what duties will be assigned.

Many of the tasks may be more or less routine in nature, but the aides should get a briefing on every new task assigned with follow-up briefings until the teacher-aides have mastered the task. Teacher-aides vary greatly in their knowledge and skills, so they will vary in the amount of time it takes for them to learn new jobs. In some cases, the teacher may have to spend only a few moments explaining a new task and in other cases, she may have to spend several minutes over a period of several days. As new tasks are assigned, or as the teacher-aide continues to provide a continous program of in-service training (improvement of the aide on the job) for the aide assigned to her. Teachers have the major task of helping teacher-aides to keep learning and growing in the work that is assigned which means that the teachers must come to know the talents and abilities of the teacher-aide.

If an aide works for two or more teachers, one might want to assume the supervisory role to set up priorities and to coordinate the aide's activities. Teachers should avoid conflicts which place the aide in the middle, and avoid a practice of giving the teacher-aide several rush jobs at the same time.

A weekly assignment schedule for the teacher-aides may be helpful. But remember, uninteresting and monotonous (mo-not-o-nous, same thing over and over) assignments over a long period of time may not be encouraging to the teacher-aide to continue to be effective in her work. While some days may end up being the monotonous type because of the urgency of the tasks, teachers should try to plan the aides' work so it will be varied with some interesting projects among the less interesting assignments. Teachers should share their thinking and planning with the aides so that the need for all assignments (including routine uninteresting tasks) are apparent to the aides.

Teachers should use the practice of writing instructions for the aide on the tasks assigned to her. This practice combined with conference from time to time will cut down on the aide getting ready to do a job and then not being certain what it is she is supposed to do. The time wasting practice that everyone wants to avoid is having the aide interrupt the teacher after a lesson has begun in the classroom or for the teacher-aide to wait for a time that she can talk to the teacher. If the teacher has to spend a great deal of time going over tasks or is interrupted after a class has been started, she may as well do the work in the first place.

Every teacher should have clear understandings with the teacher-aide about her role in the school. The teacher should talk to the teacher-aide about procedures that must be followed in her classroom. For example:

1. Confidential information--what are the teacher-aides responsibilities?

2. Discipline procedures--what should the aide do in cases where discipline should be taken?

3. Health and first aide--what is expected of the teacher-aide?

4. Other rules of procedures that the teacher wants the aide to follow.

Finally, the teachers should be prepared to give an accurate evaluation of the teacher-aides services based on objective evidence on the quality of her work, the times she saves you, and other factors determined by the administration. This evaluation should go beyond general comments of "I guess she is doing all right, or she is doing a good job." Tell why!

"The dramatic contrasts between schools in the slums and schools in the suburbs illustrates the impossibility of discussing education without specifying the kinds of homes from which the pupils come. Many of the criticisms of the public schools which we have heard in the last few years have ignored this fact." James B. Conant

LESSON XVI

IMPROVING THE TEACHER-AIDE PROGRAM THROUGH GROUP DISCUSSIONS

A. Description of Lesson:

Lesson XVI deals with selected types of interaction-oriented training. It is felt that without free and open channels of communication between all staff personnel, teacher-aides will never achieve a partnership status in the school. Of primary significance in the study of group processes is an understanding of the roles assumed by each participant. Various schemes of group involvement are discussed.

B. Purposes of Lesson:

(1) To present various designs that may be employed to involve personnel in the interaction processes.

(2) To outline the duties and responsibilities of specific job assignments in group processes.

(3) To present the strengths and limitations of group processes.

(4) To prepare teacher-aides as worthy members of discussion groups.

C. Assignment of Personnel: (Is applicable only if a director is assigned to regularly scheduled training sessions)

Teachers and administrators should attend this session both as participants and as part of the audience. The trainer should identify problems that are pertinent to the teacher-aide program. In the training session, different group discussion techniques may be utilized to give participants simulated experiences. A brief evaluation period should follow each technique that is demonstrated.

D. Materials Needed:

The trainer should provide a handout that will describe the techniques to be demonstrated and the problems that will be discussed. Roles of each participant should be planned in advance.

E. Content of Lesson:

GROUP PROCESSES

Organizations whether they represent business, government, or education, work more effectively if the personnel involved in their direction meet regularly to discuss the problems that are bound to be present. Because of the very nature of a teacher-aide program, meetings between teacher-aides, teachers, and administrators should be regularly scheduled to provide a directional framework. If they are to serve a useful purpose, careful planning and organization must be carried out at all times.

To insure this effectiveness, certain members of the group should be assigned specific jobs such as: the group chairman, the group secretary, the group consultant, and the group member. So the teacher-aide may better understand how group discussions should work, a brief description of the duties and procedures for each group member will be presented. It is essential that the discussions will permit the teacher-aides to benefit from the training and experience of teachers and administrators and vice-versa.

1. The Discussion Group Member:

As a teacher-aide, one should not assume that he will always be only a group member who should sit and listen. The teacher-aide should remember that he may be called upon to serve as chairman, secretary, or observer, depending upon the nature of the discussion and the qualifications of the participants. The role that each group member plays will have a direct effect on the success of any group discussion. If there is no participation by members, there is little reason for a meeting and faint hope that the problems mentioned will be solved to the satisfaction of the discussion participants.

The improvement of school practices that involve teacher-aides, therefore, depends upon successfully involving teachers, teacher-aides and administrators in democratic group discussions. Each member of the group should be a "participant" in the true sense of the word. The group chairman and the consultant (if he is used) should avoid a tendency to dominate either in terms of policy-making or plain talking too much. Participants should be thought of as co-workers who are helping to identify and solve problems, rather than as mere listeners in a captive audience.

Because so many school problems relate specifically to a given situation, quite frequently their solutions must be achieved on a local basis, too. For this reason especially, it is important that, when local school problems are being attacked, all participants should be expected to present their own ideas and all members should listen critically and objectively to each other. One should bear in mind that most problems have many different sides to them and, although the solutions to them that others present may be wrong, your solution may seem just as insane to them. In making his contributions to the group, therefore, each member should try to stay within the item being discussed, let others be heard, and try to keep all comments as brief as possible.

The ideal group chairman will expect the participants to bear some of the responsibility for the leadership of the group. He will make it clear that what the group accomplishes is each member's responsibility. There are many functions that the group members must be prepared to assume from time to time in group discussions:

(1) Create and project new proposals and suggestions.

(2) Add to the proposals and statements of others.

(3) Clarify the remarks and statements made by an individual or by several persons.

(4) Summarize the progress of the group.

(5) Ask questions when they are needed to point up the need for specific information.

(6) Support or reject positions taken by other members.

(7) Work toward a consensus of opinion and being willing to change one's point of view.

(8) Respect for the opinions of all members.

(9) Avoid monopolizing the discussion.

These suggestions, intelligently used, will help group participants be productive, solve problems, formulate plans, and reach conclusions.

II. The Group Observer

The group observer keeps a record of what he observes and feeds his observations into the discussion by the group to provide some sort of guideline as to how well it has worked and how it might work more effectively next time. This role is assigned to a specific group member because the other members may well be too busy discussing and thinking about the topic or problem being discussed to be able to effectively observe how the group is functioning. The observer is thus a member of the group who takes responsibility for observing its work and interpreting what he sees. He is also a member of the team which includes the chairman and secretary. Some of the things to look for are: what the chairman does and the results of his actions; what different members do; why they do it, and its effects upon the group; and how well the group may deal with problems. Some characteristics of a good observer are:

1. The observer watches what happens without getting emotionally involved in the discussion.
2. The observer writes down his observations as the discussion moves along instead of waiting until it is finished.
3. The observer reports to the group what he has observed without telling them what should be done.
4. The observer should select only the few most important things to tell the group instead of giving a step by step report. The observer should have about five minutes at the conclusions of the discussion to give his report to the group.
5. If the discussion bogs down, the observer should be prepared to direct the group toward new goals to revive the dialogue among the members.

III. Chairman

The primary role of the group chairman is to help the group select the problems which it as a group wants to discuss, and do the most productive job of solving them in the time available. He should see himself as a member of the group with certain special functions to perform, not as someone controlling the group from the outside, not as someone who has all the answers to tell to the group, not as a person of special prestige whose ideas the group should not criticize--in other words he should not present himself as an all-knowing, all-powerful individual. On the other hand, he must bear in mind that his ability to lead and his willingness to do so will be crucial to the success of the group. There is no substitute for experience, nor is there a substitute for strong leadership.

The chairman, secretary and recorder should see their special jobs as part of a team. The leader should help the recorder summarize and pull together its thinking from time to time. He should also see that the observer is used to help the group look objectively at its progress and report back to the group when he believes it is working well.

Some specific characteristics of the role of the group chairman are:

(1) Identifies problems that participants feel need urgent attention.

(2) Limits the number of problems to be discussed at any one time. Gives participants an opportunity to determine the problem to be discussed.

(3) Identifies different points of view early in the discussion and keeps the group abreast of the differences throughout the discussion.

(4) Keeps the group on the agenda that was agreed upon at the beginning.

(5) May ask for periodic reports from the secretary to whom he directs pertinent information as it comes out of the discussion.

(6) If the group bogs down, it is chairman's responsibility to get it moving again.

(7) The chairman should keep the discussion within the time limits agreed upon.

(8) The chairman should avoid injecting his own biases and prejudices in discussions.

(9) The chairman attempts to achieve results through consensus instead of voting.

(10) The chairman uses all participants to the best advantage.

IV The Group Secretary

The work of the secretary is to keep a running record of the content of the discussion so that, at any time, he can report back to the group what has been discussed. In this procedure the secretary of a discussion group differs from the job of a formal "secretary" of an organization, in that the group secretary not only keeps a record of formal action taken but what is more important, records the happenings in the group in which motions are not numerous. Also, his job also is different from that of a "stenographer", because he selects only the crucial points that come up in the discussion.

These suggestions may help the secretary:

(1) The secretary should pay particular attention to the chairman in order to get cues as to what should be recorded.

(2) The secretary should associate people with statements that are recorded.

(3) The secretary should never assume that the participants have agreed on certain points.

(4) The secretary should write down sufficient notes to provide instant recall.

(5) The secretary should never let much time elapse between taking his notes and transcribing them into a final form.

(6) The secretary should avoid injecting bias in his permanent transcription of the notes. Choice of modifying words can often change the tone of the report.

In summary, the secretary reports the activities of the group in an objective fashion. He strives to make his report as factual as possible, without editorializing or evaluating his comments. At the end of a session the secretary should give an oral report of his notes to the group. He should then prepare a written report and submit it to the chairman for distribution to all participants.

V. The Resource Person:

The services of a resource person is often desirable. The role of the resource person in groups may vary somewhat from the use of consultants in other areas. Not being a member of the group, the resource person should not give speeches. However, he will participate in the discussion because the group may need his expertise to help solve their problems.

Everything the resource person says need not (should not) be accepted without question. He deserves, however the respect of the group members, by the nature of his "guest" position. The resource person must make his contributions in such a manner that they do not stifle the efforts of the group to solve its own problems.

The resource person may point up some unexplored aspects of the problem being discussed. A group may spend a long time dealing with an issue that a resource person who has some special information concerning the problem can provide an instant solution. The resource person should refuse to offer a final solution to the problem and he should constantly stress to the members of the group that this is their responsibility.

The resource person may wait to be asked questions by group members, but he should feel free to contribute if he feels his contribution is pertinent. Some group researchers found that effective contributions in discussion should not be longer than three minutes. Additionally, a resource person may be asked to serve in the role of observer or analyst in some instances.

In conclusion, a brief description of the duties and procedures for each group member has been presented. Each member must participate freely in order to obtain maximum effectiveness. The group member should recognize that those in a position of leadership should have much to contribute to the solution of the problems at hand. They should not hold leadership positions if they can not do this. However, the key role of the leaders will be to provide information and direction. The effective discussion group will not rely on a few "authorities" to provide final solutions. If they remember to approach problems as a team, their conclusions will usually be more satisfactory.

Techniques of Group Discussion

There are many varieties of group discussions. Some discussions involve problem solving, others are "buzz sessions" and still others may provide practice in integrating and applying knowledge that has been gained through training and/or experience. A brief outline of several discussion techniques is presented.

(1) Small Group Method: The participants are separated into small groups of four or five members each and each group is presented a problem or the groups may be taking opposite sides of a situation. During the latter part of the session, group chairmen or secretaries present the derived solutions to all participants.

(2) Brainstorming and Idea Fluency: This is a process to pile up a quantity of ideas about a given problem. The more ideas available, the greater the chance for disclosing a usable one. The proposed action is to let the imagination go with emphasis on quantity; then evaluate later.

(3) Case Method: A problem situation is presented to the participants for discussion. The case may be set up by the trainer, the resource person or by the participants may be asked to present the case and choose the method of discussion.

(4) Accidental Events: An unusual happening or a sudden surprise in the schools or community may start a creative process toward productive discussions.

(5) Ripple Technique: The director of the training session presents a question or problem and then moves rapidly from one participant to another asking for each one's thoughts and concepts. The key to this technique is rapidity which will cause interest and specific replies as opposed to generalization

(6) Panel of Judges: A panel of judges is chosen from the participants. The panel is asked to judge the solutions of a case as derived by the other participants. Competition should be developed to increase interest in the discussion.

(7) Panel Discussions: A panel is chosen from the participants or outside resource persons. Questions are discussed as they are raised from the entire group.

(8) Role Playing: The participants learn by dramatization of an actual problem situation. The participants chosen to play the characterizations may become very much involved and reflect their own personalities as they are forced to make quick decisions.

(9) Question and Answer Period: This is probably the most common type of discussion techniques. The director of the training session asks thought provoking questions and solicits responses from the participants. Interactions between participants should be encouraged instead of a "participant to director" response.

(10) Symposium: A group of persons are asked to appear as a panel, and each member delivers a brief address on a specific topic. All of the individually assigned topics relate to a common problem or idea. All participants should have opportunities to become involved in the discussion after all speeches have been given.

(11) Colloquium: A group of persons are asked to direct a session and they relate take turns leading the discussion by the participants.

(12) "T" Groups: The "T" group is realted to sensitivity training. It is designed to help individuals within the group see himself as other view him. The "T" group may involve two or more individuals, but usually not more the eight. It is a specialized technique that requires the guidance of a specialist.

Through the use of "T" groups, the individuals must face themselves as they work together to solve a problem of mutual concern. Out of the discussion, each individual should see his role in relationship to the situation.

REFERENCES

Such an exhaustive supply of information lies readily avaliable for the willing researcher that there exists little need to enumerate sources in great detail here. The card catalogue of any state college will provide a list of books on educational techniques which will include a discussion of effective group participation. The Education Index contains a rich supply of pertinent references. A few selected items follow.

Books

Gorden, Thomas, Group-Centered Leadership: A Way of Releasing the Creative Power of Groups, 1955.

Haiman, Franklin S., Group Leadership and Democratic Action. 1951.

Kemp, C. Gratton, Perspectives on the Group Process: A Foundation for Counseling with Groups. 1964.

Periodicals

Brook, W. L., "Anatomy of the Group," Peabody Journal of Education, March 1968, pp. 301-302.

Maher, T. P., "Principal, Faculty Meetings and Group Dynamics," NCEA Bulletin, August, 1967, pp. 153-155.

"In a real sense, the determining factor in the relative effectiveness of a teacher is the degree and diversity of skill he has in communicating with learners." John Guy Fowler

LESSON XVII

THE TEACHER-AIDE AS AN AUDIO-VISUAL TECHNICIAN

A. Description of Lesson:

Lesson XVII provides teacher-aides with information on the care, use, and operation of audio-visual equipment. Special attention is devoted to projectors and recorders of various types. Of significance to teacher-aides is the inclusion of practical hints in carrying out an assignment as audio-visual technician.

B. Purposes of Lesson:

(1) To stress the need for audio-visual equipment in teaching-learning classrooms.

(2) To prepare teacher-aides to become skilled in using, caring for, and operating audio-visual equipment.

(3) To develop the role of the teacher-aide as a helper to the teacher when audio-visual equipment is used in the classroom.

C. Assignment of Personnel: (Is applicable only if a director is assigned to conduct regularly scheduled training sessions.)

Teachers and administrators should attend this session both as participants and as part of the audience. Different teams of teachers and teacher-aides should have received previous assignments to demonstrate how the two persons work in partnership when audio-visual equipment is used. Each team could be assigned a specific piece of equipment.

D. Materials Needed:

All types of audio-visual equipment that are used in the school system should be available at this session. In addition, films, filmstrips, tapes, records, etc. should be provided with the equipment. All types of the equipment should be set-up and in operating condition.

E. Content of Lesson:

Introduction

The audio-visual technician is one who is skilled in the utilization of materials in teaching that employ the use of sight, or sound, or both. As a member of the teaching team, whose major objective is making the teaching-learning situation the best possible, one of teacher-aide's assignments will probably be the operation of various audio-visual machines. He will not be expected to be a repairman, but ordinary care and such items as replacing a burned out bulb would be his function.

From experience, a person should know how annoying it can be when a film breaks, the projector won't work, or a slide fails to appear or disappear as planned. The whole thread of thought or sequence of events is broken. Sometimes, even after repairs, or resuming the showing, the thought or sequence cannot be recaptured. It will be the teacher-aide's job to see that these events occur as seldom as possible.

There are two "musts" in the use of audio-visual materials in the school that apply to the technician, as well as to the teacher. They are:

1. The material must be easy to understand (readable and hearable)
2. The material must be handled skillfully.

There are many types of audio-visual equipment available today, from the very simple to the most complex. This lesson deals only with the equipment most often found in schools; namely, the 16 mm film projector, slide projector, filmstrip projector, overhead projector, opaque projector, audio tape recorder, and the record player. It will not be too difficult to learn how to care for and operate the newer machines, as they are usually modifications or combinations of the basics to be discussed here.

General Directions for Care of Equipment

Read directions and guides:

Of first importance in the operation of any equipment is to read the guide usually furnished by the manufacturer for each piece of equipment. A diagram of the machine is in each guide, with all the parts plainly labeled. Read the guide and follow the directions exactly. The manufacturer knows with what procedure his particular machine functions best. If, for some reason, the instructions for a particular machine have been lost, a new booklet for that machine (be sure to include model and serial number may be obtained from the manufacturer.) Many times equipment is damaged or unnecessarily worn, simply because directions have not been followed. There will probably be someone within the school who can show you how a piece of equipment works. Again, read the directions for operation and care. The person demonstrating the equipment may not be following the directions exactly.

Each piece of equipment, even those made by the same manufacturer, has its own little quirks and peculiarities. The teacher-aide should discover these as he works with each one. He should learn how to operate one machine before going on to another. "Practice with each until you feel 'at home' with it."

Many types of equipment have a cooling fan, which must be allowed to run until the machine has cooled off, otherwise the bulb, or bulbs may not last very long. Many of the machines have ON, OFF, and FAN switch positions. Remember to switch to FAN when use of the machine is completed until the air being blown from the fan is cool.

Power Cords

The care of power cords is a simple thing, but improper care is probably most often responsible for machine break down and long periods of disuse. If one establishes the habit of care with power cords and cables, this problem can be practically eliminated.

Some tips for proper care of power cords:

1. When removing a power cord from the power source or the machine, always grasp the plug, not the cord. Pulling the plug from the socket by the cord will eventually loosen the wires in the plug, and may result in the cord shorting out.

2. When preparing the power cord for storage after use, winding in loops is not recommended. This results in tangles, twists, and knots, that require valuable time to straighten. A better idea is to fold the cord back and forth (the length of the folds are dependent of the size of the storage space), and wrapping only one end several times around the folds and securing the end by pulling it through one of the wraps.

3. Be sure the power cord is plugged into a receptacle of the proper voltage. Most of the machines discussed here are made for 110-114 voltage. Check the electrical outlets in the room, or rooms, where the equipment will be used. Be sure you do not try to use a 220-230 volt receptacle for a 110-115 volt machine.

Specific Equipment Care

If there is not an audio-visual specialist in the school, the teacher-aide may be required to do bulb replacement, routine oiling, general dusting, and cleaning of the machines. This does not mean tearing the machine down to do a repairman's job. The cleaning will probably only consist of routine dusting of the outside case, and keeping the lenses dirt and lint free. Directions for these procedures are in the equipment guide. Again, READ THE GUIDE, and follow directions.

There are some basic considerations in the use of each type of audio-visual equipment. Perhaps a discussion of these considerations would be helpful. Only the "basic", or those most frequently found in schools will be discussed at any length.

The 16 MM Projector

The selection of films is not within the province of a teacher-aide. The classroom teacher has the responsibility for selection of the materials to be used as a part of the educational experience of the students. As a part of the teaching team, the teacher-aide will probably be charged with the technical or operational part of the process.

Most film projectors will have a threading guide somewhere on the inside of the case. After the teacher-aide has thoroughly mastered the operation of the 16 MM projector, he should become involved in the use of the film.

If at all possible, films should be scheduled by the teacher to arrive a few days in advance of the use date. This will allow time to check out the film and for preview. As technician, the content of the film is not the responsibility of the teacher-aide, but he should be capable of previewing the film and reporting the content to the teacher. Of course, the checking out and in of the film is the teacher-aide's duty.

After the film is properly mounted on the type of projector provided, the film should be checked for:

1. Proper Winding

   Sometimes (not often) a film is sent out that has not been rewound after showing. Or, once in a while, a twist in the film may have occured during rewinding, resulting in strange picture and sound reproduction. Check the film for any unusual condition of the winding.

2. Technical quality

   The film should have clear images and sound. You may have to adjust the focus and sound level.

3. Condition of Print

   Avoid, when possible, prints with scratches and considerable splicing. Poor picture quality or a broken film during the lesson presentation are annoying and do not provide the impact the use of the film would have provided.

4. If only a portion of the film is to be used, run the film up to that portion, as designated by the teacher, so that it may be used at the proper time, with a minimum of delay. Shut the machine off properly after the film use so that the sequence of the lesson may be continued as planned by the teacher. Rewinding and dismounting the film may be done after the lesson.

The responsibility for preparing for the return may be assigned to the teacher-aide. If so, he should see that films are packaged for return, properly labeled, and returned on the designated date. If it is returned promptly, others are not disappointed.

Many 16 mm projectors now in use in schools are the autoload type. This simply means that the threading of the machine is done automatically, by the machine itself. The film merely has to be started through the threading mechanism, but it is important that the starting end of the film has been clipped (the projector will have a place for this on it) so that the threading mechanism catches the end properly, and will continue the threading as it should.

After threading through the machine, the teacher-aide will have to make some adjustments to the film to release the automatic thread before attaching the film to the "take-up" reel (the reel that accepts the film as it is shown).

Nearly all film rental distributors request that films not be rewound before returning to them. They like to do this themselves, so that the film may be checked before sending it out again. But if it is desirable that the film be shown more than once in the school, rewinding is usually a very easy process. The procedure will vary a bit from projector, but again, this process will be explained in the equipment guide.

Some projectors now have the possibility of reverse, slow motion, and stopping on a single frame. Again, these directions come with the machine, indicating the settings of switches or dials for these operations. The teacher should give specific directions to the teacher-aide if these attachments are to be used.

Filmstrip Projector

A filmstrip is a related sequence of transparent still pictures on a strip of 35 mm film. A filmstrip is usually several feet in length, and may be easily rolled up to fit into a small labeled metal or plastic container. These containers take up little space and can be stored easily. They are usually stored according to subject matter and level of material.

Filmstrips are easy to use: the filmstrip projector is simple to operate and seldom gives trouble. Usually, if the filmstrip has good contrast (black and white or color) little room darkening will be necessary. There is no danger that the frame (single projector) will get out of order, as slides may, as they are on a continuous roll of film.

The filmstrip projector is probably the simplest of the projectors to operate. The mechanism consists primarily of a lamp, a reflector, a series of lenses, and a smooth channel for the film. Near the base of this channel is a knob which is turned by hand to pull the film through the projector. The knob turns a sprocket wheel whose teeth fit into sprocket holes in the film. The newer machines have a remote control which allows operation of the projector by depressing buttons for changing from one frame to another, forward or reverse, and focusing.

The only difficulty one may have is in starting the threading of the film strip properly. If the filmstrip has been stored without rewinding so that the beginning is at the beginning, then the teacher-aide will have to rewind the filmstrip so the frames are in proper sequence.

It is easy to check for proper winding by merely looking at the first few frames while holding the reel in one hand, looking through the frames toward a light source. Most of the filmstrips will be marked "start" or some other beginning word. The word "End" is usually at the end of the filmstrip.

There is either a "focus" knob or the end of the lens may be rotated to obtain a sharp, clear image on the screen. Preview of the filmstrip will probably be a part of the teacher-aide's responsibility.

Most filmstrip projectors are threaded by inserting the film into the film channel from above and pushing it down to engage the sprocket teeth. Since the sprocket holes on filmstrips are easily damaged, ease in threading the projector is important. Damaged sprocket holes may make threading difficult so, be careful.

The distance from the screen at which you place the projector will have an effect on the size of the image. Most filmstrip projectors are equipped with a 5-inch projection lens which produces a single-frame image of about 4 or 5 feet in width at a distance of 30 feet. This distance is usually suitable for a classroom, since it is desirable to have the projector in the back of the room to avoid distracting students of blocking the view of those who might be seated behind the projector.

Heat is the enemy of all film, so remember the fan or blower system.

All filmstrips should be checked to see if either a tape recorder or record player is also needed.

Slide Projector

A slide projector is also a simple mechanism, employing essentially the same principles as the film strip projector, except that it has a slide carrier into which the slides are placed one at a time and are changed by shifting the carriage from one side to the other. Other types of projectors have a cartridge and permit the loading of a full sequence of slides, in order of use. Changing of slides is accomplished by depressing a button on the machine or by using a remote control. The cartridge may be a round drum that fits on top of the projector; others may be rectangular in shape, and fit on a track on the side of the machine.

Although some projectors are made only for filmstrips and others only 2 x 2 slides, film strip projectors often have attachments which can be inserted to project 2 x 2 slides.

Other Film Projectors

A machine that is becoming more popular is a small projector designed for single concept films, and using a film cartridge that snaps in and out. Focusing and sound adjustment is usually all that is necessary.

The super 8 mm film and projector for school use is an adaptation of the 8 mm that began as a "home" movie outfit" for people who want to make their own films. The difference in the 8 mm and the Super 8mm is in the size of the picture. The super 8 is much smaller than that of the 8 mm.
[illegible] mm.

If the teacher-aide is asked to help with either the 8 mm or super 8 mm, the teacher will be familiar with this type of equipment and will give proper instructions. The projectors are smaller than the 16 mm but the operation is quite similar, either autoload or manually threaded.

Overhead Projector

The overhead projector is a valuable tool for the teacher and it has a wide general use. Its name is derived from the way that the image is projected onto a screen over the head of the person who is operating it. Teachers usually operate the machine themselves, but the teacher-aide may be asked to help. The image, when projected over the head of the operator, is easily viewed by all students since the machine is not in the line of view.

The overhead projector is designed so that a beam of light from a projection lamp, usually rated at 500W or 100W, proceeds on a horizontal line until it strikes a 45° mirror, causing it to become a vertical beam. It is the translation of the path of light that makes this projector such a tremendous tool in teaching. Any material, either transparent or translucent, can be placed on the "stage" of the machine and the image can be viewed from the screen. The translation of light from the vertical to the horizontal path is achieved through a mirror placed in the head of the machine. In some machines the height of the image on the screen is controlled by the second mirror which is pivoted in such a manner so as to be easily tilted with a knob or lever.

The materials most often used with the overhead projector are transparencies, although it is possible to use some small objects for projection. Transparencies are plastic sheets, attached to cardboard frames or mounts, through which the light passes. Thus, any translucent or opaque designs or printing on the plastic sheet are projected on the screen. Additional sheets or strips may be superimposed on the original. Each of the sheets or strips is called an overlay.

Rolls of the transparent plastic are also available and most projectors are equipped to permit their use as well as the single sheet transparency. Although one may draw or write on it with a "grease pencil" while in use, the roll has the advantage of being advanced to a clean portion without erasing the first. However, erasure is easily done by simply rubbing with a soft cloth.

The teacher-aide may be asked to prepare transparencies if the materials needed for the process are available. This may be done in several ways.

If the teacher has a drawing which she wishes to make into a projectual, it is possible, through the use of a special hard carbon paper, to do so. In order to do this, lay the drawing on the drawing transfer paper with the carbon side facing a sheet of acetate. By using a ball point pen or stylus to trace around the sketch, a sharp, clear, black on white image may be obtained which is quite difficult to erase.

Transparencies with color are not difficult to make. They may be made by using the grease marker or tracing transfer paper, outlining the basic figure on clear acetate, then using felt tip pens (having transparent ink) or special pencils having transparent colors. A very effective technique for the use of colors is the making of overlays. Colored transparency film sheets are also available.

Typewritten transparencies may be made by using clear acetate and a special "carbon" paper. But the image from the letters made on a standard typewriter are too small for large class work. Merely take the acetate, place the carbon with the carbon side against the film, roll into the typewriter and type away. It may be helpful to adjust the machine to stencil cutting a sharp, clear image. This type material may be rubbed off the acetate and the acetate reused.

The so-called "primary" typewriter with the large letter type will produce letters large enough to be viewed by a large group.

Many schools have machines that will make a transparency from almost any printed matter. The process will vary a bit, depending upon the type of copying machine. Here, again, follow the directions for that particular machine.

More and more commerically prepared transparencies are becoming available.

In using the transparencies, no matter what the source, the principal thing to remember is to arrange them in proper order of use, and placed so that the projected image is right side up and the lettering going properly from left to right.

If the teacher-aide is asked to operate the projector, while the teacher is talking, he should know when to change from one transparency to the next. This may be done by prearranged signals from the teacher, or with a partial "script" on which "cue" statements are made so that the teacher-aide will know when to change from one transparency to another.

Again, after use, be sure the fan is left running until the projector has cooled sufficiently to avoid damage.

Some DO'S

DO preview the transparencies.
DO practice, if a teacher and an aide presentation is to be made.
DO have transparencies arranged in order so that you need not shuffle materials during the lesson.
DO develop confidence in your ability to operate the projector and handle the materials.
DO keep the screen high enough so that all students have a clear, unobstructed view.

and DON'TS

DON'T sit or stand where you can cast a shadow on the screen
DON'T lay fingers or hands on the stage of the machine, casting distracting movements on the screen.
DON'T allow the light of the projector to remain on the screen unless something is being projected.

Opaque Projector

One of the most useful and simple to operate projectors is the opaque projector. The projectors will vary a bit from manufacturer to manufacturer, but the basic operation will be the same. This technique permits non-transparent materials such as flat pictures, book illustrations, tables, drawings, photographs, student's work and even specimens and objects to be shown on a screen for group observation.

Opaque materials are projected by means of reflected light. A strong light from the projector lamp is thrown onto a book page or other opaque material and is reflected by a tilted mirror through a lens onto a screen. Although the screen is normally less brilliant than that of a slide or transparency (where the light passes through the material) but very satisfactory images can be obtained if the room is reasonably well darkened.

Since the lighting efficiency of the newer projectors has been greatly improved, effective projection is possible even in moderately darkened rooms. The improved projectors have a 100-watt lamp, an opening large enough for 8½ x 11 inch materials, and an efficient, motor-driven, cooling system. There is also down-draft ventilation to hold loose or unmounted material in a place without fluttering or loss of focus. Something as small as a loose postage stamp can be projected effectively without difficulty with this type of projector. A page in a book can also be projected very well, as a piece of heat-resistant glass holds the page flat. Small objects can also be projected if the height of the object permits.

A unique value of opaque projection is the convenience with which illustrative material may be enlarged and transferred to a chalkboard or chart. A small map, chart, or other illustrative material may be projected on a chalkboard or paper and quickly traced in enlarged form.

Again, the use of the opaque projector and materials in the classroom will be based on decisions made by the teacher. The teacher-aide's role will remain that of the operator of the machine and the handling of the materials in the order and manner prescribed by the teacher.

A major disadvantage of the opaque projector is the need for a darkened room when it is being used in the classroom.

Audio Tape Recorder

The audio tape recorder is found in most schools today because it has unlimited uses. The machine makes it possible for the teacher and students to hear themselves as others hear them and to enjoy music, drama, speeches, practice foreign languages, and do many other things that involve speech and/or hearing. Since the tool is so versatile and useful in so many teaching-learning situations the teacher-aide will need to know how it works and be able to operate the recorder with skill.

There are dozens of tape recorders on the market in many models, shapes, sizes and combinations using reel or cartridge tapes, with one, two, or three speeds, and with one to eight "tracks" of sound. Regardless of the type or size of the recorder, the recordings are made in much the same manner. Tape recordings are made and replayed by magnetic means with the sound patterns magnetically encoded on plastic, mylar, or paper tape that is coated with iron oxide. In making a tape recording, sound waves are picked up by a microphone and instantaneously converted into a series of varying electrical impulses. These impulses travel to a small magnet which touches the moving ribbon the metallic-coated tape. The coating receives and retains magnetic impressions of varying strength which correspond to the original sound impulses set up by the sound waves of voice, music or other sounds. The tape can be rewound and played back at once. In replay, the invisible magnetic impressions excite the magnetic head of the recorder and create electrical impulses which, after being suitably magnified, activate the loud-speaker diaphragm to produce sound waves identical to those originally set up during recording.

Tape recordings can be used again and again. A reel of mylar tape may be run thousands of times with no visible evidence of wear or decrease in in sound quality. If an error has been made or the recording is no longer needed, the tape can be erased in a matter of seconds. Erasing makes the tape magnetically neutral and it is ready for immediate reuse. If a tape is broken, stretched or twisted a simple splicing job may be done with an inexpensive little kit. If they are stored in the original container, little damage can result from dust of atmospheric conditions.

Some machines record more than one track of sound (as many as eight) but few schools have such machines at present. Libraries are more likely to have those that record and play for stereophonic reproduction--especially for music.

The teacher-aide may be asked to help with students who have various types of speech problems. Practice in hearing themselves as others hear them (through recording and instant play-back) can often lead to desired improvement. Actually hearing himself has much more impact on a student than being told of a speech problem. The teacher-aide may be asked to work in this type of activity while the classroom teacher is busy with other things. In addition, the tape recorder could be used by the student in practicing and improving his oral reading skills, oral reports, or many other types of oral work, individual or group. Earphones for playback--and many machines are equipped with them, or they can be had for a nominal sum--eliminate the problem of disturbing other classroom activities.

Operation. The operation of the tape recorder is quite simple. No matter what the size of the machine the basic operation is the same. Either push-buttons or switches will be marked in some way to indicate play, record, stop, fast-forward, or rewind. The majority of recorders, both the play and record switches or buttons must be activated at the same time for recording. For replay, only the play control will need to be activated--otherwise, you may erase a portion of the tape. There are "volumne" and "tone" controls that may be adjusted to fit the recording situation according to the place and the sound to be recorded.

A microphone is usually furnished with the tape recorder. These may vary in shape, size, and performance. There will be an "input" or place to plug in the microphone. Some machines are equipped with a "monitor" input or an "earphone" on which one may hear what has been recorded without disturbing others. The manual for the school's recorder will make recommendations concerning ways to secure the best sound reproduction on that machine.

There will also be a "power" cord that comes with the machine, to be plugged into the machine at one end (be sure it is the proper end) the other into the power source.

For all the parts of the recorder and its operation, the teacher-aide will need to become familiar with the particular machine or machines with which you may be asked to work. Here again, the manual for a particular recorder is invaluable.

Methods of mounting the tape will vary from machine to machine. The best source of information as to procedure is the machine's manual or someone in the school who is familiar with the recorder. It is usually good practice to rewind the tape as soon as possible after use, so it is ready for reuse at any time.

Recorders of various sizes and types that use a cartridge tape are being used more and more. The tape is contained in a plastic or other type container, ready for use. It need only to be snapped into place. This eliminates the necessity of mounting the tape. It saves time, is more convenient, saves storage space.

The recorders have varying recording speeds, some one (the least expensive and often poorest reproduction), others two or three. The speeds are 1 7/8, 3 3/4, and 7 1/2 ips (inches per second). The slower the speed the less fidelity in sound reproduction is possible. There will be a setting for speed of recording on the recorder. The higher speed gives higher fidelity in sound reproduction and is especially useful in musical material or language pronunciation. But, it is important to remember to set the speed according to the speed at which it is desirable to record in a particular situation. When using pre-recorded tapes--and they are available now in many subject areas and covering myriad events at levels from kindergarten to adult--the recorder must be set at the speed at which the recording was made for proper replay. A person may get a "Donald Duck" sound at the wrong speed.

Reels of recording tape come in various sizes and tape lengths. The reels are usually 3, 5, or 7 inches in diameter. The tape lengths will vary - from 600" to as much as 3600". Tape lengths, recording speeds and the time involved for the number of "tracks" are found on most tape containers or boxes.

Many schools now use language laboratories for the teaching of foreign languages. There is a master control (which the teacher operates) and listening and recording stations, with earphones, for each student. The teacher-aide may be asked to help the students learn to operate their equipment, and to assist if something goes wrong during class.

Another task that may be assigned to the teacher-aide is that of "dubbing" or duplicating tapes. Frequently, a teacher will secure for use a tape that he or she feels has such value that it is desirable that a copy be made to add to a collection. For this procedure, two recorders will be used, one to play the recorded tape, the other to duplicate the recorded material on blank tape. Special connecting wires with plugs on one end and "alligator" clips on the other are used to pick up the sounds directly from the playing machines. The sound from the recorded tape is transferred to the blank tape by placing the alligator clips on the speaker posts of the playing tape recorder, and plugging the other end into the dubbing or copying recorder. This technique is much better than trying to copy using the microphone, since any other sounds are screened out. The microphone will pick up sounds that are undesirable for a particular recording. It is important to observe copyright laws which means that not all tapes may be reproduced.

The tape recorder is of great use as a self-evaluation and improvement device, as well as an instrument for bringing into the classroom many enriching experiences. More and more teachers are learning the value of the recorder and adapting it to many uses. Therefore, a competent knowledge of its use can make you very valuable to the teacher in such uses.

Record Player

Although recordings made on magnetic tape have replaced disk recordings to some extent, the latter are still used widely. Poetry readings; essays and short stories; brief, dramatized historical episodes; songs and other music; are often found on long-playing records--or "LPS", as they are familiarly called--and transcriptions. LP's at 45 rpms (revolutions per minute) have from 5-8 minutes recorded material on a single side, depending on the number of microgrooves and their spacing engraved on the disk. The 33 1/3 rpm LPs contain from 10 to 15 minutes of recorded information. These latter disks are very useful, since several selections may be inscribed on one platter. The location of any one piece on a multi-selection record can be found by its "band" - the ring of microgrooves it occupies. If a particular selection is listed on the record as "Side 1, Band 3, this would mean that the particular selection alone could be played by moving the phonograph's needle to the 3rd band of microgrooves in the circumference of the record.

Transcription, on the other hand, is the technical term that refers to professionally recorded disks that are not commercially available to the general wire or tape recording has been perfected for such use. While the LPs are generally 10 and 12 inch platters and available commercially, transcriptions are usually larger from 14 to 18 inches in diameter. The transcriptions may be recorded at speeds of 15, 33 1/3, and 45 rpm. The 16 rpm transcription is widely used in schools for "talking books"--current and classic titles in children's literature.

The record player is in such general use today that everyone is probably more familiar with this piece of equipment than any other. Nevertheless, care and proficiency in operation is essential. There are so many brands and types available, it would not be possible to list all of them here. However, a few tips common to most record players would be in order. It is hoped that the machine in every school would have at least three speeds (four preferable), 15, 33 1/3, 45, and 78 rpm. On some machines the speed is set by a control knob or dial alone, while others require also setting the needle at the desired speed.

The speaker may be built into the main body of the phonograph, but, in many models it will be in the lid and will have a speaker cord that must be plugged into the machine. It is usually a good idea to place the speaker a bit away from the machine. Try placing the speaker in various locations in the room until the most desirable place is found in relation to pupil seating, etc. The machines will likely have stop, start, volume, and tone control switches, with which practice will make you competent. Many of the machines will have a detachable power cord, as well as a speaker cord,

Care procedures for the record player will again be in the instruction manual for each particular machine. It is important that the needle and records be cleaned as needed and in the manner prescribed. Record storage is a matter of concern. Be sure they are stored so that they are relatively dust-free (the jackets they usually come in are helpful--albums are better). and that the records are not stacked so that they may become warped. The sound quality of records is greatly affected if they become warped or scratched. Placing the needle carefully on the record is important, as it is very easy to make scratches when this is done improperly.

The Screen:

It would be desirable to have a permanent screen installed in every classroom. In most schools, however, this is not a reality; so a portable screen must be brought into the room when it is needed. The screen should be brought into the classroom and set-up at a time when the action will not interrupt other classroom activities. Responsibility for screen care and transporting it when it is needed become the responsibilities of teacher-aides.

Summary

A teacher-aide can become an invaluable helper to the teacher, a "good right arm." As a skilled practitioner with audio-visual materials and machines, a teacher-aide can make an outstanding contribution to effective teaching-learning situations. The teacher is freed from many tedious jobs that take valuable time from that which could be used more profitably in planning, organization, and work with individuals and groups. More time is available to the teacher to discover and work with special problems and needs.

When skilled in the use of audio-visual materials and equipment, the teacher-aide becomes a very important member of the teaching team. He can become a skilled practitioner by remembering and practicing some simple procedures. Although you will not be expected to become a technical repairman, the teacher-aide's responsibility will be to use care in the operation of equipment - perhaps replace burned-out bulbs, do routine dusting and lens cleaning; be skilled in the smooth operation of each type of machine and its materials; preview materials when necessary; see to the proper storage or return of equipment of materials, or both; and perhaps help with the preparation of some of the materials required by the teacher. Learning to listen, read, and follow directions is most important in becoming a skilled operator and user of instructional equipment and materials.

The role of the aide in this area will, of course, vary from school to school, teacher to teacher, and from situation to situation. The extent of the teacher-aide's involvement will depend largely upon the objectives of the school, the teaching situation, and the teacher or teachers with whom he is asked to work. But, whehter the involvement is great or small--the skill with which one is able to operate equipment and work with materials, the knowledge of the objectives as outlined by the teacher: ability to work cooperatively with others; all are attributes which will make you a most important contributor and member of the team, that is dedicated to more effective teaching and learning.

"Keep up appearances whatever you do" Charles Dickens

LESSON XVIII

GOOD GROOMING

A. Description of Lesson:

The content of this lesson is divided into nine major areas of good grooming and it is devoted exclusively to women. The areas considered are (1) the importance of good grooming (2) cleanliness, (3) hair grooming, (4) posture (5) nutrition (6) weight (7) rest and sleep, (8) make-up, and (9) clothing. Section one deals with the purpose and need for good grooming habits among women today. Section two involves bathing, complexion, tooth care, care of the hands, nails and legs. Section three involves the care of and selection of appropriate hair arrangements. Section four points up the importance of good carriage as well as the characteristics of good posture. Section five discusses the elements of good nutrition and how it pertains to good grooming. Section six is a discussion of the correct ways of dealing with weight problems as they relate to appearance. Section seven is a brief overview of the significance of rest and sleep to good grooming. Section eight explains the proper use of and application of make-up. Section nine encompasses the selection of clothing.

B. Purposes of Lesson:

(1) To orientate the trainees to the importance of good grooming.

(2) To acquaint the trainees with the various facets of a pleasing appearance.

(3) To stimulate the trainees to enhance their own personal appearance.

C. Assignment of Personnel: (Is applicable only if a director is assigned to conduct regularly scheduled training sessions)

It is strongly recommended that a home economics teacher in the school system plan and direct this lesson.

D. Materials Needed:

(1) hand out materials

- (a) weight chart
- (b) exercise sheet

(2) make-up utensils for demonstration

(3) chart of face shapes and appropriate hair-do's

E. Content of Lesson:

THE NEED FOR GOOD GROOMING

Personal grooming is the art of making oneself presentable, acceptable, and attractive. The way in which one appears to others reflects his habits of personal grooming. The first impression one gets of you is based on how you look. If your hair is unkempt you may be labeled an untidy person, if you walk with poor posture someone may deduct that you lack self-confidence and poise, and if your nails are unfiled and dirty your unclean personal habits are in full view for all to see. Many times first impressions are lasting ones, and good personal grooming habits are essential to good first impressions. Personal appearance is important to you because you will constantly be in contact with other people, but just as important, personal appearance can be satisfying to you as an individual. When you are confident in knowing that you present a neat and clean you it is easier to do better at your job, as it frees you from personal concern.

There are no "plain" women but there are many who do not know how to present themselves attractively. There are many attractive women who could look prettier still. In this day of commercialized beauty tricks it is important to remember that a pleasing appearance comes from being well groomed and not drenched in these products. Moderation and knowledge are the best policies to follow in trying to create a more well groomed you. You can improve on nature only with taste and sublty.

Cleanliness

The first rule of good grooming is cleanliness. Cleanliness is a personal matter that affects ones health and appearance. It is necessary that everyone give themself this type of attention daily. Baths wash away the oil and waste products that our skin accumulates during the day. Soap and water are the best agents for body cleanliness. Soap applied directly to the skin tends to have a drying effect on any type of skin. It is best to lather soap on the palm of the hand or a wash cloth and then apply briskly to the skin. Those persons with dry skin need to use a moisturizer (body lotion) daily. Those with exceptionally oily skin may need to bathe more and use an astringent. Extremes in hot and cold water should be avoided when bathing. However, a gradual cooling of bath water can aid the body in adjusting to the coolness of surrounding air.

A well groomed appearance is often reflected in one's complexion. The most important factors in maintaining a well-groomed skin are keeping it clean and making an effort to correct its irregularities. Cleanliness can be obtained by frequent soap and water washing. Many skin irregularities can be overcome by this same procedure. For instance, oily skin is helped by frequent soap massages, and acne clears up faster with this same treatment. There are many commercial skin preparations on the market today. None make a person young, beautiful, or happy, however many do serve a useful purpose by helping to control skin irregularities. Cold cream is a lubricant for skin that lacks oil. Hand lotions help the skin to be soft and supple. Vanishing creams claim to dry oily skin but soap has the same effect. Talcum reduces the oily appearance of the skin. Astringents reduce the output of oil. Rubbing alcohol serves as a very effective and economical astringent for oily skin. Deodorants reduce the body odor caused by perspiration and should necessarily be used by everyone daily. Following are eight simple rules for improving your complexion:

1. Wash face three times a day
2. Obtain an adequate amount of sleep
3. Drink 6-8 glasses of water a day
4. Avoid highly spiced or fried food, concentrated sweets, chocolate, shellfish
5. Indulge in fresh air and sunshine
6. Keep physically fit
7. Do not irritate skin blemishes
8. See a dermatologist if your skin breaks out excessively.

A dental examination should be had at least twice a year. The teeth should be brushed after each meal to remove food particles that may cause decay and to keep the breath fresh. Brushing should be from the gums toward the tips of the teeth. After each brushing the brush should be cleaned thoroughly and dried before the next using.

"Shady" hands will ruin an otherwise sparkling appearance, so be sure to keep them clean and free from stains. Apply hand lotion each time your hands are washed to prevent redness and drying. The stains that appear frequently around the nails can be prevented by rubbing the finger tips with a piece of lemon. Once a week shape your nails with an emery board, stroking gently from the sides toward the center. Avoid both a straight across shape and one that is extremely pointed. The nails should be long enough to protect the finger tips and enable you to pick up tiny objects easily. One of the most important steps in hand beauty is the care of the nail cuticles. At night scrub your hands gently with a brush and push the cuticle back with a towel. For the weekly manicure here is what to do:

1. Remove all traces of old polish (this should be done as soon as polish begins to chip or peel)
2. Wash hands well, scrub nails with a brush, clean under nails
3. Trim away the rough edges of the nails with an emery board and then shape in a rounded fashion
4. Gently push back the cuticle
5. Polish, if desired, with a natural looking shade.

If you manicure in this fashion weekly, you will be well groomed to your finger tips.

A woman's legs need attention too. The flaky, scaly appearance so many girls' legs get during the winter does not go with a well-groomed appearance. Keep the skin soft and smooth by applying lotion every night from the toes to the knees. Keep the legs free from fuzz. Shaving is the quickest, least expensive way and does not make the hair more coarse. It is best to soap the skin before shaving.

HAIR GROOMING

Your hair is your "crowning glory". It can furnish, if treated properly, a beautiful addition to one's appearance and feeling of being well groomed.

The care of the hair and scalp is to be considered first. Brushing the hair is of first importance in the care of the scalp and hair. It cleans both, it makes the hair smooth and glossy and it stimulates the scalp. Daily brushing tends to give hair a beautiful sheen. The brush should be firm enough to enable one to exert some force upon the scalp, but not so stiff as to irritate the scalp. The brush should have its bristles set wide apart. The comb should be such as not to tear the hair or wound the scalp. A good comb has its teeth smooth and wide apart with blunt tips.

Another important aspect in the care of your hair is the shampooing and use of water on the hair. The daily use of water on the hair without careful attention to drying is almost certainly bad for it. When, however, the scalp and hair are thoroughly dried, the case is different and there seems no reason to believe that the hair is damaged by shampooing it as often as is necessary for cleanliness. The number of times your hair needs shampooing depends upon the condition of your scalp and the amount of dirt to which your hair has been exposed. The average person needs to shampoo once or twice a week.

When you shampoo take care to clean the scalp as thoroughly as the hair. Rinse well to remove all traces of soap as it will give your hair a dull appearance. Dry the hair and scalp thoroughly after washing. You should choose your shampoo to match your hair type. Today's market offers shampoos for dry, normal, oily and bleached hair. As a rule, the hair is difficult to control for a day or two after it is washed. This is usually controlled by one or two persistant brushings.

Splitting and breaking of the ends of the hair are conditions that usually result from external injury that causes hair to become dry and brittle. Occasionally this lack of oil comes from general poor health, but much more frequently it is due to improper care of the hair.

There are four basic face shapes and for each there is a basic hair design which is most flattering. The color of the hair is an added factor in deciding on a certain style. Brown hair is most attractive in curls and "pretty" arrangements. Black hair is best dramatized by smooth, uncurled hairdos. Red hair is at its best in a simple design and blonde hair is best worn in soft waves so that it will never look overdone or overcurled. The basic face shapes and appropriate hairdos are as follows:

1. Round face: The hair should be worn higher on one side than on the other. This tends to break up the roundness. Any version of a "lifted" effect and an up and off the neck style is recommended.

2. Square face: Simple, classic types of hairdos are the most flattering to the face, with the square contour. Softly waved hair, in perfect condition, should keynote any hair arrangement for this face shape.

3. Long narrow face: Fullness on the sides of the face and bangs best flatter this face shape. Curls and waves will make the face appear more full.

4. Oval face; This face shape sets the pattern for the ideal. Almost any hair style is flattering and the fortunate person can wear most any new style. Waves should be loose and curls natural.

With your hair clean and shining and a hairdo keyed to flatter you, you are a more well groomed and attractive woman.

Posture

Your posture is one of the first things that people will notice when you come into view. The way you stand, sit and walk tells people something about you. If you walk with your head thrust forward this indicates that you are an aggressive person. One who has slumped shoulders is often thought of as being meek and timid. It is the free stride and erect spine that tell others you are brimming with enthusiasm and vitality.

When you stand or walk pull your body tall. Visualize an imaginary cord from the center of the head down your body which pulls the spine straight upward. The chin should be level, the tummy flat, the rear tucked under, knees relaxed and slightly bent, feet pointing straight foward. When you walk your steps should be about as long as your own foot. There should be no perceptual change of weight when walking. No woman should ever settle for less than a graceful poised carriage.

Good sitting habits are especially important because most people spend more time sitting than either standing or walking. When sitting the head and trunk should be in the same position as when you are standing. An alert individual sits with his hips well back in his chair. The thighs and buttocks support the weight of the body. When sitting the knees should be together with the feet flat on the floor, or one leg crossed at the ankle. Always glance at your skirt when you sit down to make sure it is not riding knee-ward.

A good exercise to help you play it "straight" is to line yourself against a wall and push your waist against the wall and push slowly up until your legs are almost straight. Lift up your chest and pull in your chin so there is the smallest possible space between neck and wall. Now walk slowly away, keeping your body in the same position. At first you may slouch back into your old posture. You must practice standing tall - line yourself up with the wall several times a day.

If you are sufficiently aware of your posture you will walk with the graceful, springy step that tells the world you are glad to be you.

Nutrition

A woman can look well-groomed only if she is in the best of health. The best health insurance is a well-balanced diet. When the body is in tip top condition, the skin is clearer, the hair shinier, and the nails sturdier. Eating correctly makes the body go, grow, and glow.

Following is a list of the Basic Four Food groups. These foods should be eaten daily for optimum health.

1. Meat Group: Two or more servings a day of meat, poultry, eggs and fish.
2. Vegetables and fruits: Four or more servings a day.
3. Dairy foods: Two to four servings a day of milk or milk products.
4. Breads and cereals: Four or more servings a day of breads, cereals or macaroni products.

The main nutritional error that many people make is overeating in the wrong food groups thus failing to give the body the well-balanced diet and nutrients that are needed for a health body. Many people tend to drink many cokes and eat hamburgers, hot dogs and french fries. These foods have some nutritional value, but when they are the main source of food, they fail to supply you with the vitamins, minerals and proteins that are needed.

A common belief among many women is that the less they eat the better off they are, but they are wrong. The best way to loose weight is to eat sensibly and to exercise. It is essential to good health and consequently to good grooming to eat a well balanced diet. Too much or too little of any of the basic four may be harmful to your appearance.

Weight

It is common belief that there is serious danger in being overweight or underweight. This is true only if you are excessively overweight or underweight, more that 15% above or below your desirable weight. The table on the following page gives the desired weights for various heights.

There are many reasons why people are overweight. Heredity is one factor about which little can be done. This type of weight problem is best regulated under the care of a doctor. Another cause of obesity commonly found in older people is overeating. To reduce this type of weight the person should avoid fat meats, cream, gravies, salad dressings, and other oils. It is necessary to cut down on bread and butter, desserts and sweets. Dieting can be dangerous if the person does not do it intelligently. Everyone needs certain foods from the four basic food groups. These are essential in a reducing diet as well as for the normal nutrition of everyone.

WEIGHT IN POUNDS ACCORDING TO FRAME (IN INDOOR CLOTHING)

Desirable Weights for Men
Aged 25 and Over

HEIGHT (with Shoes) 1-inch heels Feet	Inches	Small Frame	Medium Frame	Large Frame
5	2	112-120	118-129	126-141
5	3	115-123	121-133	129-144
5	4	118-125	124-136	132-148
5	5	121-129	127-139	135-152
5	6	124-133	130-143	138-156
5	7	128-137	134-147	142-161
5	8	132-141	138-152	147-166
5	9	136-145	145-156	151-170
5	10	140-150	146-150	155-174
5	11	144-154	150-165	159-179
6	0	148-158	154-170	154-184
6	1	152-162	158-175	168-189
6	2	156-161	162-180	173-194
6	3	160-171	167-185	178-199
6	4	164-175	172-190	182-204

Desirable Weights for Women
Aged 25 and Over

HEIGHT (with Shoes) 2-inch heels Feet	Inches	Small Frame	Medium Frame	Large Frame
4	10	92-98	96-107	104-119
4	11	94-101	98-110	106-122
5	0	96-104	101-113	109-125
5	1	99-107	104-116	112-128
5	2	102-110	107-119	115-131
5	3	105-113	110-122	118-134
5	4	108-116	113-125	121-138
5	5	111-119	116-130	125-142
5	6	114-123	120-135	129-146
5	7	118-127	124-139	133-150
5	8	122-131	128-143	137-154
5	9	126-135	132-147	141-158
5	10	130-140	136-151	145-163
5	11	134-144	140-155	149-168
6	0	138-148	144-159	153-173

For girls between 18 and 25, subtract 1 pound for each year under 25. Note This table was prepared by Metropolitan Life Insurance Company. It was derived primarily from data of the Build and Blood Pressure Study, 1959, Society of Actuaries.

Exercise alone is ineffective for reducing the weight of an obsese person. However, a well-planned diet in addition to exercise is an effective means of weight control. Activity "burns" up the calories that you eat. Following are some exercises that, along with a proper diet, help keep muscles firm and weight down.

EXERCISES

I. Warm-Ups

1. Bend and Stretch (on back-elbows bent, knuckles touching shoulders)
   Count 1-Bring right arm overhead and left knee close to body
   " 2-Return to start
   " 3-Flex right knee and straighten left arm
   " 4-Return

2. Fling and Stretch
   Count 1-Right hand over head, left leg upward to vertical position
   " 2-Down
   " 3-Left hand and right leg up
   " 4-Down

3. Scissor Swing (lying on side)

4. Scissor Swing (instead of holding hand in front for support place overhead)

5. Scissor-Jump Warm-up (alternate hands and leg)

6. Squat Thrust (single leg)
   Count 1-Start from squat-knees on outside of hands
   Subsequent counts on alternate leg forward

7. Skipping (Verticle)

8. Rope Jumping

II. Lower Back and Hamstring - common test for hamstring is to touch floor-knee st. (If hamstrings are tight stand with kness flexed) (If muscles of lower back are tight you will stand with an exaggerated hollow in it, and possible protruding buttock and prominent abdomen)
Lordosis-to correct it strengthen muscles of tummy and seat and restore normal flexibility to lumbar spine.

1. Single Knee Pull - Pull knee toward body on count 1 and down on count 2. (on back-knees flexed)

2. Double Knee Pull - Same as above except both knees to chest.

3. Trunk bouncing - Wide leg position (bounce toward center 1,2,3,4)

4. One-sided Bounce - Bounce over right then left leg - four times.

5. Close leg Long Sitting Position - Bounce and slide hands down towards legs (4 counts)

6. Standing bounce - Bounce toward floor (4 counts)

III. Chest, Shoulder and Upper back Flexibility

1. Rib Spreading - Cross legs - hands on head (raise right elbow on count 1 and down on count 2)

2. Bent Arm Passive Chest Lifting (stretch pectoral muscles) work in partners - one sits and clasps hand in back of head and partner lifts elbows back. (4 counts)

IV. Pelvic and Lower back Posture

(the correct tilt or position of pelvis is a basic factor in posture)

1. Bent knee lying pelvic tuck - press back to floor on count 1 relax on count 2.

2. Progression for Bent Knee lying position
   a. Flex knees on back - arm out to side
   b. Pull one knee to chest
   c. Straighten that leg
   d. Lower leg
   e. Both down
   f. Rest
   Then other leg

3. Lordosis series

   a. Madcat - on all fours - arch back on count 1 and relax on count 2.
   b. Pretzel sit - Count 1--Hug knee with back straight
      Count 2--Hug knee and sit tall
      Count 3--Relax
      Count 4--Look at lap
   c. Spine extension-sit against wall (hand beside hips on floor and legs straight.
   d. Spine extension - back unsupported (hands clasped in back of head)

V. Abdominal Strengthening

1. Back reclining situp - sit - lean back on elbows and lower arms and then sit up.
2. Trunk curling - (legs apart and tucked chin)
   opposite arm and leg lift - but straight
   sit up until you touch outside of left knee
   with right hand. (hands on top of thighs)
3. Curl with arms folded - sit up
4. Trunk curl with elbow reach - hands on front shoulder
5. Leg lowering to side with knees flexed - count of 4 (lying position)
6. Leg lowering to side with leg straight - count of 4 (lying position)

VI. Head and Shoulders

1. Front lying shoulder lift - count 1 & 2
2. Butterfly - lift shoulders and feet at the same time - count 1 & 2
3. Curl and Arch on back - touch head to right knee and then to left knee. 4 counts

VII. Waistline

Sit

1. Side bending from sitting position with hands on hips (count 1-bend to right, count 2-back up, count 3-bend to left side, count 4-up to start)
2. Side bending from sitting position with hands on shoulders (4 counts as above)
3. Side bending from sitting position with hands on head (4 counts)
4. Side bending from sitting position with arm in S position (4 counts)
5. Trunk circling forward and sideward from sitting position (hands on hips) Count 1,2,3, & 4.
6. Half kneeling - side bending (kneel on one knee the other leg straight to the side - one hand under the underarm on side of extended leg - other hand overhead. (Count 1-bend to side where leg is extended & bounce 2 & 3 pause on 4 - Repeat 4 times to each side)
7. Alternate side sitting - arms out to side - sit on one side then the other. Count 1, 2, 3 & 4.
8. Hip lifting from half side lying position - lower right arm on floor, left hand in front of body and arch. Head down - 4 counts.
   a. Put top hand on side of hip instead of on floor and continue as above.
   b. Use straight arm support and continue as in 8.
9. Side trunk raising (side sit-up) 2 counts.
10. Side trunk raising with help - someone places one hand on ankles and other takes top hand of performer. Pulls up to count 1,2,3.
11. Trunk twist from sitting position - fist on shoulders and twist to right on cout 1, straight on 2, twist left on count 3, and straight on 4.
12. Same as 11 except trunk twisting with single arm flinging from sitting position.
13. Bend Stride standing - with hands on knees bring one arm to side, then up into air to the count of 4.
14. Leg lift and touch to side to the count of 4.

EXTRAS

1. Calf Shaper - kneel on one knee, hands on other knee. Spring foward lifting knee off the floor and pump right knee forward 4 times, 3 repetitions on each leg.
2. Bustline firmer - clasp hand under chin and hold to the count of 4, trying to touch elbows.
3. While sitting in class or in the car try holding the muscles of the abdoman, thighs, or buttocks very firm and rigid. This exercise is effective and can be done most anywhere with the least amount of effort.

While there is a larger number of people who would like to lose weight than there are those who would like to put it on, being underweight is a problem to some. If you want to gain weight you should become familiar with the foods that are high in calorie value. Milk and milk products, butter, eggs, and meat in your diet will considerably increase your calorie intake. Eat more often rather than stuffing yourself.

Rest and Sleep

Rest is the best way to overcome normal fatigue and the best way to rest is to get enough sleep. Sleep is as essential to the body as is nutrition. In fact, most of us could live longer without food than we could without sleep.

Although eight hours a night is commonly suggested as an adequate amount of sleep, sleep is very much an individual matter. To look and feel your best you probably need between seven and ten hours of sleep a night. A simple test to tell whether or not you are getting enough sleep is to notice if you are alert, healthy and in good humor. If you are drowsy, mentally sluggish and easily irritated you may need more sleep.

Sleep and rest are extremely important because they affect the way you look, act and feel. A person who receives the required amount of sleep will be a much happier, vigorous and better looking person.

Make-up

The proper use of make-up can help to make a well-groomed and attractive person. It can transform an ordinary skin into an attractive one, conceal minor imperfections and highlight especially pretty features.

Some basic rules for applying make-up are:

1. Always apply make-up in good light and study the final effect in a magnifying mirror.
2. Take your time.
3. Don't over do it! Too much make-up may detract from your appearance.
4. Apply make-up appropriate for the occasion.

Apply your make-up in this order:

1. Foundation
2. Rouge
3. Face Powder
4. Eye make-up
5. Lipstick

Dot foundation on the nose, cheeks and chin as well as at the base of the neck. With an upward motion, smooth over the face and neck. Blot off excess with a tissue. Foundation protects your skin and brings color to a sallow complexion and helps cover skin irregularities. The tone of the foundation should be similar to the natural skin tone. There are many kinds of foundations each purposely designed for particular types of skin. It is important to select the correct type and color for yourself.

Rouge and "blushers" should be used after the foundation has been applied. Rouge can be found in several forms: liquid, cream or cake. Then there are the new "blush" powders, utilizing a soft brush to apply a pink powder. Always remember when using rouge or "blush" that your aim is a fluff of color - not a flash. By using too much you detract from your overall appearance.

Always apply powder with a clean puff or pad of cotton. Dip your puff deep into powder and apply generously to face and neck. Let powder set while you apply your eye make-up. Then with fresh cotton and soft down strokes remove the excess powder.

The next highlighting feature to be dealt with is the eye. Eye make-up should be used in moderation if it is needed. Daytime calls for very little eye make-up. Applied correctly eye make-up can contribute a great deal to one's appearance. One should first apply the eye shadow on the lids of the eyes only. Eye liner can be used next if your eyes are unduly small or pale. Draw a very thin line flush against the base of the eyelashes. The color of the liner should be close to your natural hair color. Women with black or blonde hair should use gray liner, never black. Stroke on mascara the color of your liner in long even strokes from the root of the lashes to the tips. The stray hairs around the eye brow should be plucked, leaving a full natural brow. If your hair is light or your brow is thin you may wish to emphasize it by evenly stroking with an eye brow pencil or brush. Always follow the line of your natural brow.

Lipstick should be applied with a small brush following the line of your mouth. Soft shades are usually more flattering and less artificial looking. Select a color complimentary to your coloring.

Make-up can enhance one's appearance and yet used to excess can be very detrimental to all aspects of good grooming. One must strive for a natural and clean look. Sublty and moderation are keynotes to the correct and effective use of make-up.

Clothing

Clothing is an expression of the person, reflecting his personality, way of living, way of thinking and especially his pride in self. People often defend the way they are dressed by saying they haven't the time or money to dress better. True, time and money are important factors in dress but one can dress to look well groomed with a minimum amount of money and a little time. In clothing selection avoid fads and select clothes that are versatile and appropriate to oneself. Plan your wardrobe with skirts and tops that can be interchanged and dark dresses that can be dressed up or down.

The colors that you select must be flattering to you, becoming to your skin, hair, eyes and size. To select the best color for you determine your own coloring (hair and skin) and wear its compliment. To find the compliment of a color simply determine its opposite of the color wheel. For instance, the skin tone of orange-pink is complimented by blues and greens. Green will intensify the red in the skin.

It is very difficult to match colors. It is better to wear two contrasting colors than to wear colors that are "almost" the same. Contrast makes dress interesting, overmatching should be avoided.

When selecting your clothes find your figure flaws and dress to hide them as well as to emphasize your attributes. If you are on the round side, try up and down details and stripes as they will detract from your roundness. Flatter yourself with medium color values and close contrasts, softly falling skirts and non-clinging tops. Slim girls should wear bloused tops and full skirts in bold colors. Point up a trim waistline with bright sashes. Tall girls should dress dramatically and small girls should wear small prints, small detail and simple lines.

All women need to purchase good undergarments that give support where it is needed and serve as a foundation for the outer clothing they select. These garments need not be expensive but it is very important that they fit properly and give adequate support. A woman should own at least two of each undergarment so they can be washed after each wearing.

Each time you dress watch for the following grooming points:

1. Did you bathe today?
2. Are your underclothes clean?
3. Are your clothes clean, pressed and in good repair?
4. Are your clothes suited for the occasion?
5. Do your accessories compliment your clothes?
6. Are your hose free from runners and your shoes polished?
7. Is your make-up light?

Cleanliness and common sense are the best rules in the matter of clothing. A neat well-groomed appearance can be had on a limited budget by careful selection and care of clothes.

F. Follow-Up Activities

1. Identify personal difficulties in each area of good grooming and devise a plan to overcome them.

G. Evaluation:

1. What is good grooming?
2. Why is personal appearance important?
3. Comment on the following statement: Bright colors should be the keynote of daytime make-up.
4. Oily skin is helped by frequent soap massages. Why?
5. Describe the correct type of comb and brush to use on your hair.
6. Your hair style should be determined by what two factors?
7. Name at least four characteristics of good posture.
8. What are the four basic food groups?
9. Comment on the following: Exercise alone is a good method of losing weight.
10. Comment on the following: Everyone should have eight hours of sleep a night.
11. Select one body type (tall, short, small, heavy etc.) and describe the type (color, line etc.) of clothing that would best flatter the figure.

"Give a little love to a child and you get a great deal back" John Ruskin

LESSON XIX

UNDERSTANDING CHILDREN

A. Description of Lesson:

Lesson XIX is designed to focus attention on the easily observable characteristics of children from the age of five through the adolescent period. The lesson outlines the characteristics in several categories; namely, general, relations with adults, intellectual skills, physical growth, and relations with children in own age group.

B. Purposes of Lesson:

(1) To provide insight into the characteristics of children in different stages of development.

(2) To provide an overview of the gradual maturation of children from early childhood through adolescence.

(3) To develop an appreciation for what is "normal" behavior of children.

(4) To help teacher-aides become better classroom helpers to teachers.

C. Assignment of Personnel: (Is applicable only if a director is assigned to conduct regularly scheduled training sessions)

It is recommended that a panel be selected which represents different agencies in the community that provide services for children or who work with children, such as the child welfare agency, teachers, parents, and scout leaders. The panel members could address themselves to the characteristics that are outlined in this lesson. An alternative technique would be to have a specialist in psychology conduct the session.

D. Materials Needed:

There are unlimited sound films available from film lending services which deal with the growth and development of children.

E. Content of Lesson:

As in the past, most teachers today assume teaching positions with an earnest attempt to stimulate children to learn. Because of the external forces applied to them, children used to know that they went to school to learn, but there may be many reasons why children go to school today, such as there are laws that compel them to attend. The role of the teacher has become more difficult, then, since different motivational techniques are required to encourage children to learn.

The presence of additional adults in schools adds a new dimension to the potential power struggle between pupils and teachers; the young and the old; or the weak against the powerful. Teacher-aides must accept responsibility to reinforce classroom mangaement established by the teachers instead of becoming a disruptive influence. To achieve that goal, this lesson is designed to motivate teacher-aides to become knowledgeable observers of children as well as to be able to exert a positive influence on children in the classrooms.

Characteristics of the Elementary School Child:

The 5 Year Old

General:	Is friendly Is capable of doing many things Likes to dress up Is interested in adult activities Is project minded Likes praise Is dependable Likes to be independent Is serious
Relations With Adults:	Likes to help either parent Is companionable Likes to run simple errands Enjoys conversation with adults
Children of Own Age Group:	Is a poor member Is a tattletale Needs adult supervision Is demanding Hits and pushes
Physical Growth:	Handles sled and tricycle well Hops and skips Cuts, pastes, and draws pictures Handles tools geared to size Can handle most dressing
Intellectual Skills:	Knows numbers up to 10 Has vague concepts of time Enjoys being read to Has questions that are purposeful
Role of Teacher:	Creates interest Encourage the best effort from each child Capitalize on child's interest in learning Provide pleasing and adequate work centers Guide in best use of materials Present suitable materials Keep record of child's varied experiences Be enthusiastic in teaching

The 6 Year Old

General:	Tends to go to extremes in behavior Is excitable Is preoccupied Is apprehensive Is imaginative Is dependable Likes to help Dawdles
Relations With Adults:	Is companionable Is delightful Is demanding Is hesitant
Children of Own Age Group:	Is demanding Plays well with companion, but is poor group member Needs adult supervision Has no group loyalty Is a tattletale
Physical Growth:	Is an ugly-duckling individual Has one or two permanent teeth Is losing knock-knees Is losing protruding abdomen Is active Has acquired most basic motor skills Is beginning to practice and combine skills Is easily frustrated by lack of fine motor skills
Intellectual Skills:	Carries on long conversations May have an imaginative playmate Knows common coins Knows numbers up to 30 Likes action on television Enjoys imaginative play Likes books and stories Is losing interest in toys per se Has interest in school subjects
Role of Teacher:	Continue to build background experiences Guide children in readiness activities Provide a variety of activity situations and experience Give reassurance to child of your concern for him Assist and encourage the individual child Commend the child in his efforts Instruct the child in the care of equipment Help child to look for the interest side in activities Observe and translate observations into new ideas in educating children Emphasize cleaning up after work is done

The 7 Year Old

General:	Is dissatisfied Sulks Lapses into musing moods Complains Is a good listener Is intensively preoccupied Is competitive Alibis and blames
Relations With Adults:	Nags Is fond of teacher Is sensitive to attitudes of others Challenges parents
Children of Own Age Group:	Participates in group play that is closely organized Still needs adult supervision Has strong loyalty of short duration Is not a good loser Likes secrets with friends Begins to show evidence of sex cleavage
Physical Growth:	Shows steady, smooth growth Has permanent teeth appearing at rapid rate Is well coordinated Handles dressing completely Is learning to whistle Is learning to throw with skill Practices motor skills Has well-established hand-eye coordination
Intellectual Skills:	Knows basic number skills Has fair concept of time Has beginning of sexual curiosity Uses "bathroom" language Enjoys riddles and simple jokes Has lengthening periods of self-absorption Likes T.V. Likes to repeat satisfying experiences Shows increasing interest in reality
Role of Teacher:	Plan with children--give them choices, help them see ahead Stress the care of tools and equipment Help establish good work habits Avoid imposing adult standards Encourage self-expression and creativity Help develop child's self-confidence Encourage relationships with peers Evaluate activities to the objectives desired

The 8 Year Old

General:	Is brassy Is expansive Is evaluative Is peer oriented Is sensitive to criticism Is argumentative
Relations With Adults:	Is demanding--particularly of mother Expects and asks for praise Can admit wrongdoing to adults Alibis Challenges parents Eavesdrops on adults
Children of Own Age Group:	Is highly critical of brothers and sisters Displays evidence that sexes are growing apart Does considerable bickering Engages in spontaneous but short lived grouping Muddles through, but play continues
Physical Growth:	Has ten or eleven permanent teeth Is losing baby body profile Has growing interest in games requiring coordination and small-muscle control Writes with considerable effort May swim well, bicycle and roller skates have interest
Intellectual Skills:	Begins to be interested in past Can tell day of month and year Makes small change Begins leisure-time reading Is skeptical Is increasing in sense of humor Begins interest in collections Begins dramatic play
Role of Teacher:	Emphasize importance of following written instructions Encourage "helper role" by giving responsibility Help child experience success Plan individual and group activities Encourage the child to experiment with ideas Plan a variety of activities Be alert to individual differences in children

The 9 Year Old

General:	Displays new forms of self-dependence Is increasing in self-motivation Resents interruptions Is independent Has strong peer orientation Has widening interests Shows variability in mood; timid, bold, cheerful, grumpy Is essentially truthful and honest

Relations With Adults:	Needs reminders Makes increasingly accurate estimates of adults Can accept blame but "who started it?" Begins to pull away from parents Is more interested in friends than family trips
Children of Own Age Group:	Joins in spontaneous groups of one sex Expresses contempt for opposite sex May have friends outside immediate neighborhood Begins secret codes and languages
Physical Growth:	Can care for own needs Shows slow and even growth Is perfecting motor skills Uses tools increasingly well
Intellectual Skills:	Is increasing in powers of appraisal Is clearly acquiring a conscience Has interest in varied adult roles Is perfecting motor skills Inventories possessions Collects things indiscriminately Can relate events well
Role of Teacher:	Plan group and individual activities Encourage the 9-year old independency Emphasize the importance of accuracy Help children see possible outcomes from work Promote low-key competitive activities Recognize and praise individual efforts Help each child discover his own talents and abilities Present problems that are child centered Appraise effectiveness of activities in reaching desired goals

The 10 Year Old

General:	Is clear about age-sex roles Is alert Is causal and relaxed Is poised Argues logically Is interesting Is congenial Likes privacy
Relations With Adults:	Enjoys creative companionship with parents Finds mother all important Is affectionate with parents Has great pride in father Is loyal Hero-worship

Children of Own Age Group:	Shows strong indication of sex change Likes rules and teamwork Is affectionate with peers of same sex Is highly selective in friendships Is intense in friendship
Physical Growth:	If a girl, may begin rapid increase in weight Has 14 to 16 permanent teeth If a girl, is on brink of pubescent spurt Has motor skills well in hand Has interest in hazardous activities Begins development of selective motor skills If a boy, is more active and rough than girls
Intellectual Skills:	Uses thought and reasoning Is interested in other people's ideas Can budget time Begins to use fractions Likes to read Has short interest span Begins to show talents Asserts leadership
Role of Teacher:	Encourage the gifted children, but also recognize the achievement of others Provide informal classroom with a variety of activities Give praise and approval to all children Give children opportunities to research unfamiliar areas with the teacher as a resource person Counsel, guide and direct independent learning techniques

The 11 and 12 Year Olds

General:	Is critical of adults Resents being told what to do Has intense interest in teams Shows considerable individual variations Is quiet around strange adults May crave periods of being alone Is moody Has strong urge to conform to group actions
Relations With Adults:	Challenges adult knowledge Refrains from communicating with adults Hero-worships adults not present in his immediate environment

Children of Own Age Group:	(If a boy) admires other boys who are skillful, bold, and daring Is much interested in organized and competitive games (If a girl) is interested in boys Finds membership in clubs important Enjoys participating in community drives
Physical Growth:	(If a girl) shows rapid increase in weight (If a boy) is ahead of girls in physical endurance (If a girl) begins to show secondary sex characteristics Is capable of carrying out good personal hygiene Increases in muscle growth Is increasingly aware of body Has strongly individual motor-skill interests May prefer to be a spectator May show self-consciousness about learning new skills
Intellectual Growth:	Is critical of own artistic products Increases in ability to postpone own logic May have interest in earning money Enjoys jobs May be interested in religion Is highly moral in evaluations Has developed tool subjects to high level Is strongly interested in world about him
Role of Teacher:	Help children plan activities, but allow a choice Provide a variety of experiences relating to social, economic and personal growth Encourage respect for and care of property Show how much can be learned and gained through group efforts Promote the unit method of teaching Access each activity and the extent to which it meets the interests and needs of the students involved Recognize and respect the creative efforts of student

Characteristics of the Adolescent

General:	Transition from childhood to adulthood A period of rapid change A period of many conflicts Thought to begin with puberty
Relations With Adults:	Uses aggressiveness in seeking independence Conflicts with adults are common Resents conditions that make them rely on adults Has difficulty in adjusting to inconsistencies and contradictions of the adult society

Children of Own Age Group:	Relationships with groups, gangs, etc. become more important Takes priority over home, school and church Adjusts to conflicting loyalties of the different groups of which he is a member Girls may be prone to make overtures to boys Almost everything is geared toward keeping good faith with peers Interest in opposite sex is becoming stronger
Physical Growth:	Maturation of sex organs and sex power Changes in height, weight and proportions Changes in body chemistry Adjusting to new motor and sensory patterns Girls mature about two years earlier than boys of same age
Intellectual Skills:	Acquires adult capacity for abstract thought
Role of Teacher:	Understanding of the striking changes that take place Realize that the adolescent is greatly concerned about doing the right thing Avoids situations with adolescents that bring about conflicts Gives adolescents as much responsibility as they are capable of assuming Establishes himself as a role model worthy of respect by adolescents Minimizes the lecture-type instructional technique Avoids telling adolescents what they are going to do

It has been said that there is no such thing as an "average" child. It would seem improbable that any child, who was charted over a period of years would reveal all of the characteristics outlined in this lesson. It is significant to note, however, that children are often times severely reprimanded in the schools by teachers for demonstrating characteristics that are perfectly normal for his age group. No teacher or teacher-aide should be guilty of expecting children to live by adult-imposed standards that are in conflict with the normal expectations of the children at a particular stage of development.

"A picture is worth more than ten thousand words" Chinese Proverb

LESSON XX

PREPARING INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

A. Description of Lesson:

Lesson XX deals primarily with instructional aids in which visual symbols are used to portray the meaning intended by the teacher. Included in the lesson are procedures to follow in making displays, such as bulletin boards, graphs, charts, maps and posters. The use of color as a device to improve the quality of a display is discussed. Although not an instructional material, the field trip integrates the purposes of display materials. Therefore, procedures to follow on field trips are presented in this lesson.

B. Purpose of Lesson:

(1) To develop the purposes for preparing instructional materials.

(2) To show why color is important in display designs.

(3) To develop the skills required in making different types of attractive displays.

(4) To outline the steps to observe when conducting field trips.

C. Assignment of Personnel: (Is applicable only if a director is assigned to conduct regularly scheduled training sessions)

Teachers, who have demonstrated the ability to prepare attractive as well as educational display materials, should be selected to conduct this lesson along with the assistance of carefully selected teacher-aides. A staff member, who has completed course work in audio-visual aids and/or art would be extremely competent to conduct or assist in the lesson.

D. Materials Needed:

Since this lesson should be taught as a laboratory session, the instructors should provide a wide range of materials needed to prepare display materials, such as construction paper, poster board, pins, paints, lettering guides, rulers and scissors. The materials should be provided in sufficient quantities to allow for adequate participation by all trainees.

E. Content of Lesson:

One common response from teacher-aides when they are asked to enumerate their various work assignments is "I help prepare bulletin boards." Practically every elementary school teacher in America employs some type of wall display during the school year which might be classified as a bulletin board. While bulletin boards in themselves can and should be important displays, there are others types of related instructional materials for which teacher-aides should develop a proficiency in making; namely, maps, charts, graphs, posters, diagrams, flash cards and flannel board demonstrations. Unlike bulletin boards which require a great deal of the teacher's time; maps, charts, graphs, diagrams and posters are easy to manufacture and are very effective aids to instruction. They are designed to be presented by the teacher at the right time in the lesson while bulletin boards are displayed more conspicuously for a longer period of time.

To effectively relate to a particular group of children, the instructional materials should be developed creatively either by teachers, teacher-aides, and students working separately or in groups. Everyone involved in the construction of the instructional materials should keep in mind that they are being prepared as displays which are designed to help the teacher clarify and communicate important facts and concepts through visual symbols. However, the instructional aids need not be masterpieces of art. To be effective, they should be pleasing, attractive, colorful, and capable of communicating their intended message. The aids should be constructed so that they will be plainly visible to the viewers (pupils) from all corners of the room and arranged or presented in manner designed to attract and hold their interest.

Every teacher should use and motivate display activities. While some teachers may lack confidence in their ability to develop or direct the utilization of the instructional aids, all teachers should employ them. When assigning teacher-aides some responsibilities in their preparation, it should be recognized that the fundamental skills for preparing instructional aids are not difficult to master but time is needed for a person to become proficient in manufacturing them.

Display areas should be accessible for viewing, and not hidden behind doors. The materials should provide viewing of materials at eye level. It is also important that displays serve certain basic ends:

1. The nature of the display is clearly evident
2. It gives concrete evidence of things that have been discussed, studied, and/or read about in books
3. It provides a visual communication that helps to overcome the inadequacies of verbal communication.

As one would expect, the most effective display materials are those created as the result of careful preparation. They should reveal attention to orderliness and purpose, as well as to illustrate a planned organization. There are some simple display techniques for improving the development and presentation of display materials. These techniques enhance the educational value of the instructional aids:

1. Determine what is really needed--bulletin board, poster, chart, map, graph, diagram, etc.

2. Decide whether the instructional aid is to be shown as a finished end product or whether it is to be part of a larger display.

3. Should be prepared so it is easy to read, clear to understand, and which is free of distracting details.

4. Use color, texture, and materials that are realistic and appealing.

K

5. Be prepared to change the display from time to time as classroom study progresses and as interests and needs of the group change.

6. The displays should serve to stimulate children to study the topic in more detail on their own.

Two questions that always should be asked and then answered are: (1) Will the message be successfully communicated?, and (2) Will the display have eye-appeal?

Before undertaking the construction of displays teacher-aides may wish to collect a variety of pictures and other materials and store them in some logical sequence, so they are easily accessible. Magazines provide excellent resources for illustrations. In many cases, the printed materials that supplement pictures should be saved; e.g., picture and stories in Life or Look. In other cases the pictures used in advertisements serve useful purposes. Children may bring in a wide variety of pictures from magazines as well as other materials that have utility.

Teacher-aides should construct a color wheel. See the following illustration. A color wheel is made up of three primary colors--red, yellow and blue, and three secondary colors--green, orange, and purple, which are mixtures of the primary colors. Many additional colors are possible. In choosing combinations of colors for a display, it is wise to select colors which go together naturally. These are:

1. Complementary colors--colors which are directly opposite each other on the color wheel, e.g. green and red.

2. Triads--any three colors about equisdistant from one another on the color wheel; e.g. red, yellow, blue.

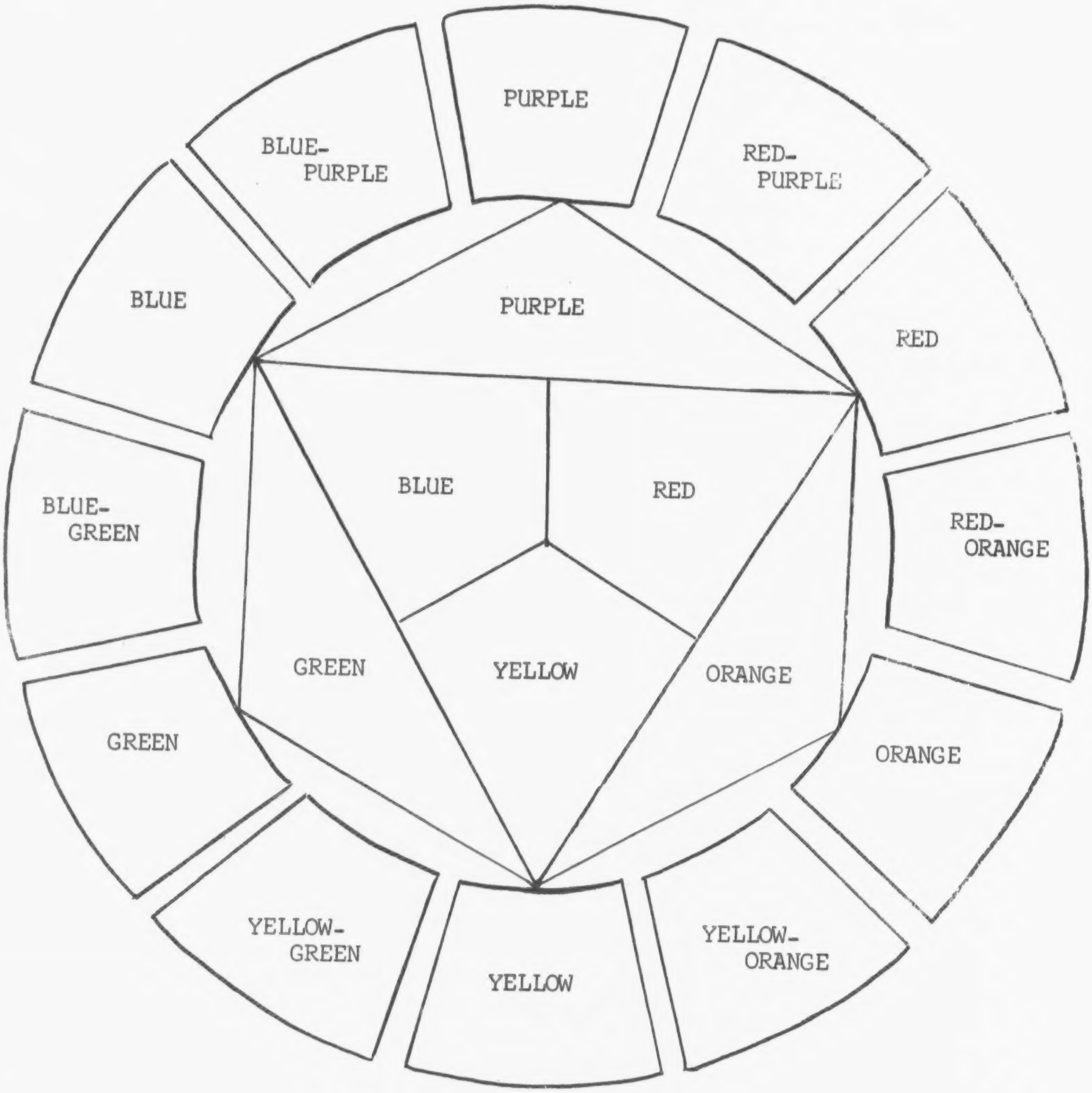
3. Split complimentaries--any single color plus the two on either side of its complimentary; e.g., red, blue-green, and yellow-green.

4. Analogous colors--these colors which have the same primary base (red, yellow, blue), these colors are usually found next to each other.

Color can have either a positive or a negative role on displays. Too many colors lessen the effectiveness. Colors that do not blend with the basic color scheme may stand out too much and therefore lessen the effectiveness of the display.

To create effective displays, the teacher-aides must be able to make many types of legible and attractive captions, labels, and titles. Poor lettering can ruin the best art work and otherwise carefully planned display. In lettering, as in the use of color, the key to attractive displays is to keep it simple. "Fanciness" is not the normal goal for the teacher-aide to achieve in preparing a display. Using manuscript letters, the teacher-aide can prepare letters out of tagboard and then use them as templates for future lettering. Teachers and teacher-aides with little or no art background may be needlessly concerned. There are many lettering aids available to make the job a simple one.

COLOR WHEEL


PURPLE
BLUE-PURPLE
RED-PURPLE
BLUE
PURPLE
RED
BLUE
RED
BLUE-GREEN
RED-ORANGE
GREEN
YELLOW
ORANGE
GREEN
ORANGE
YELLOW-GREEN
YELLOW-ORANGE
YELLOW

Colors for the wheel may be cut from construction paper. The color wheel should be mounted on a piece of poster board and it should be kept out of the sunlight except when in use. The color wheel can be an excellent guide to the teacher-aides as they plan color schemes for instructional aids. There is a great variety of colors available in construction paper which can be matched with colors on the color wheel. Black and white match with all basic colors in the wheel.

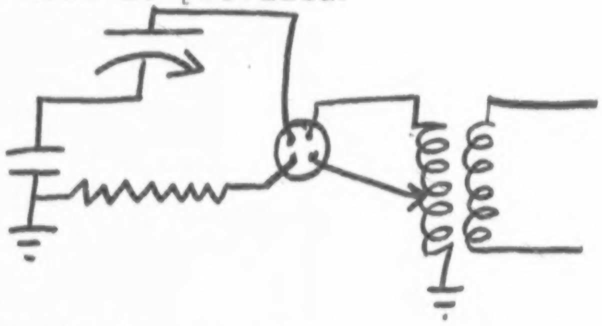
Every display should have a central heading which states the general purpose and idea of the display. Ask a question, pose a problem, make a direct claim or statement. The title is usually one of the means by which attention is first directed to the display.

Another important consideration is the contrast in brightness between color of printed letters and the background. Effective color combinations are: dark blue letters on white background, black on yellow, and red on white.

In order to acquaint teacher-aides with a variety of displays, a brief outline of some of the more prominent ones is provided.

The Diagram

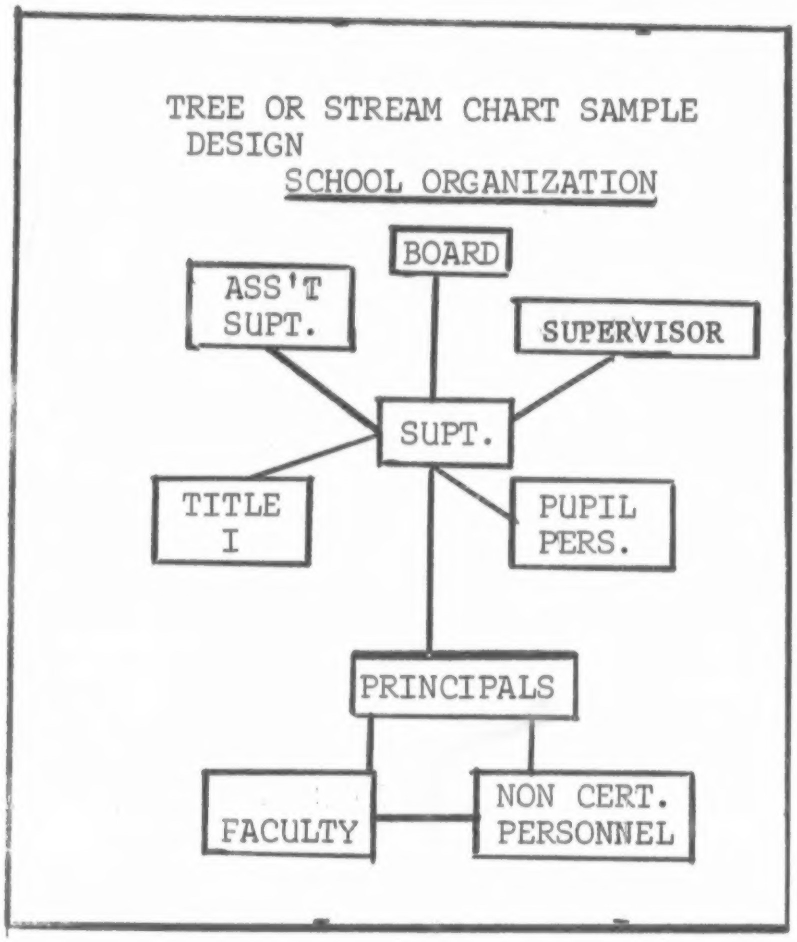
A diagram is a visual symbol made up of lines and geometrical forms from which pictorial support is absent. Teachers use diagrams everyday in their chalkboard demonstrations in the classroom. Diagrams frequently appear in textbooks and in other sources, such as governmental agencies, business firms, and noncommercial agencies. Teacher-aides are in a position to build a collection of diagrams (either commercial or school constructed) and mount them in a way that the teacher may use them over and over. Teacher-aides should remember that a diagram must be as simple as possible. For a diagram to be effective, the viewer must usually have a background of knowledge and experience in the given area before it is used. An example of this cautionary note is provided.

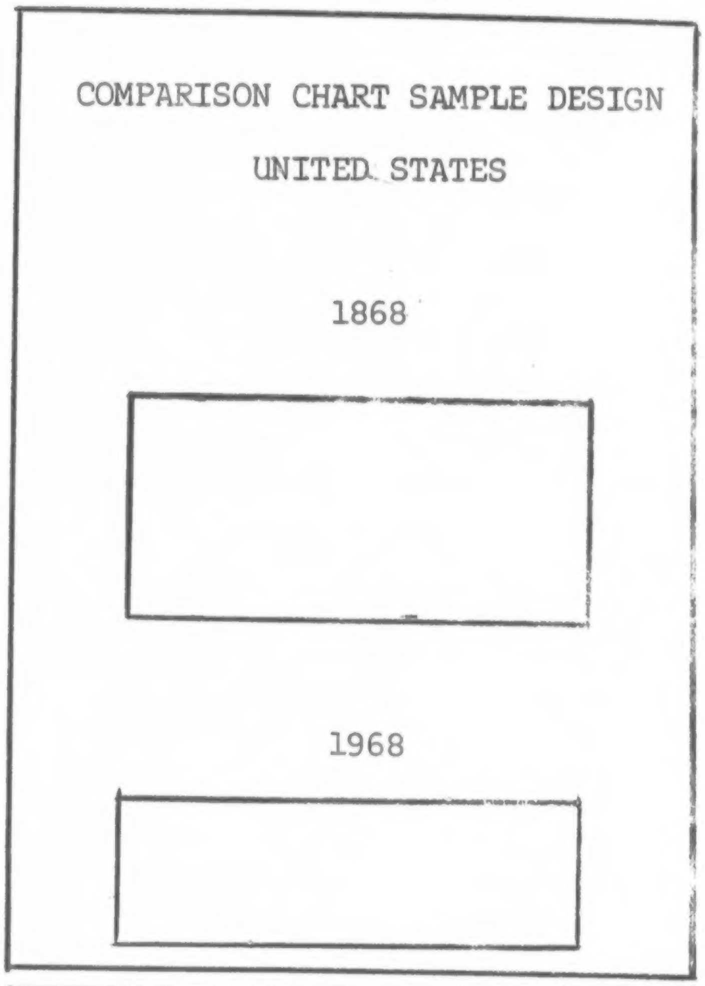


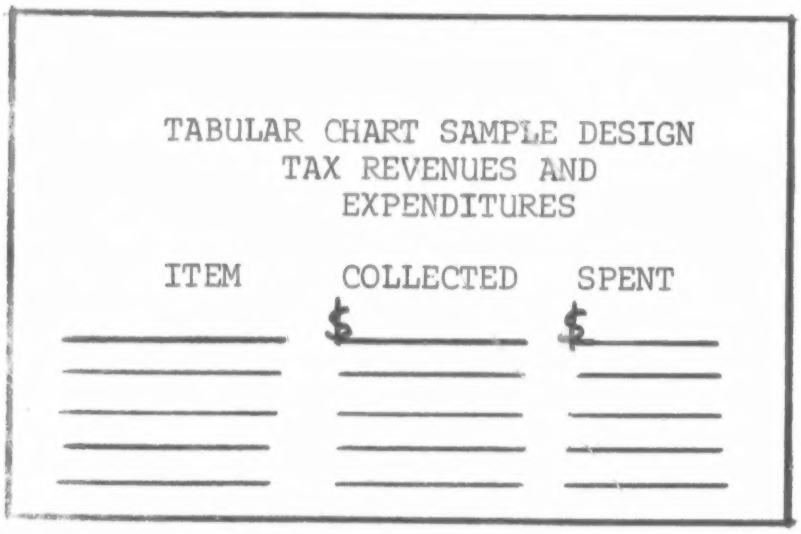
The above diagram includes some basic symbols used in electronics. Unless the viewer is familiar with the symbols, the diagram has no meaning.

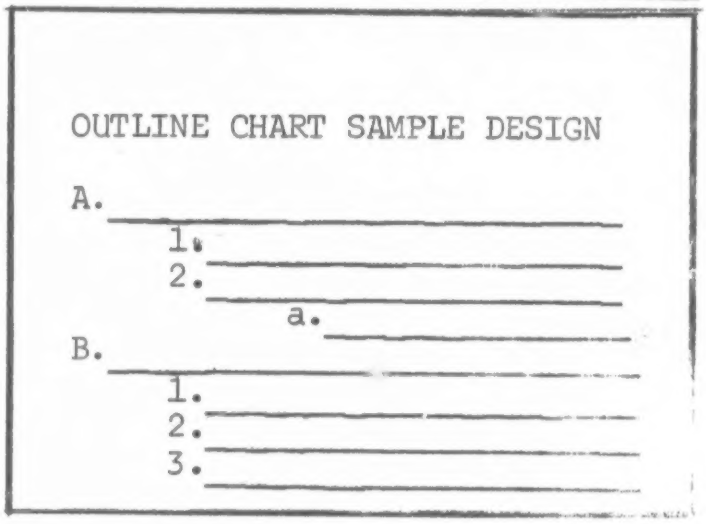
The Charts

The chart is a combination of pictorial, graphic, numerical and/or verbal materials which go together, will be most likely to present clear visual summaries of processes or relationships. While commerical charts are available, simple charts can be constructed in the school for use over and over.


TREE OR STREAM CHART SAMPLE DESIGN
SCHOOL ORGANIZATION
BOARD
ASS'T SUPT.
SUPERVISOR
SUPT.
TITLE I
PUPIL PERS.
PRINCIPALS
FACULTY
NON CERT. PERSONNEL

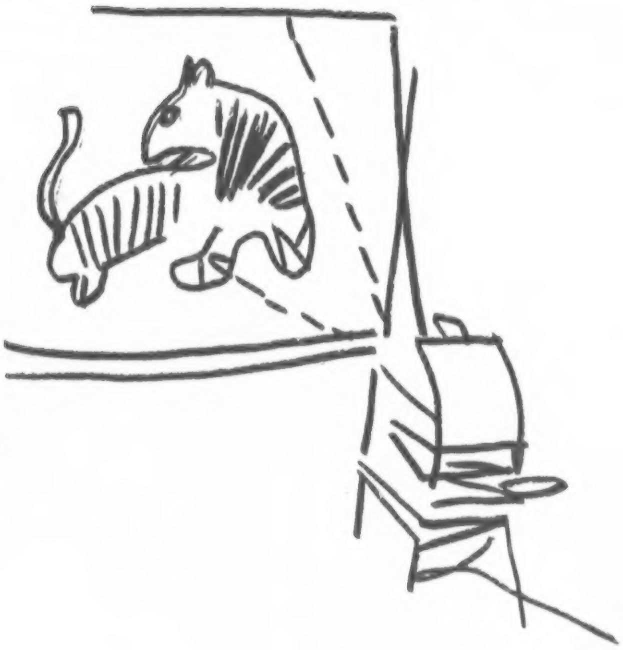

COMPARISON CHART SAMPLE DESIGN
UNITED STATES
1868
1968


TABULAR CHART SAMPLE DESIGN
TAX REVENUES AND EXPENDITURES
ITEM
COLLECTED
SPENT
$
$


OUTLINE CHART SAMPLE DESIGN
A.
1.
2.
a.
B.
1.
2.
3.

Sources of charts are basically the same as those for diagrams--newspapers, governmental agencies, books, magazines, free materials. Charts must be easy for students to read and they must be simple.

The teacher-aide can often eliminate undesirable information from the charts in its reproduction. For all display items, the opaque projector provides a wonderful instrument for reproduction.



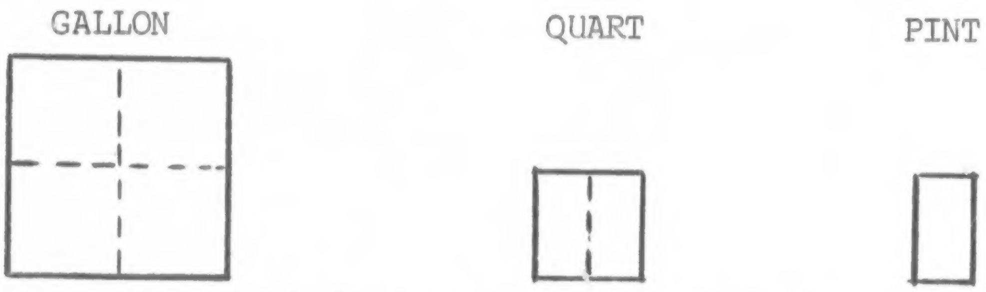
After enlarging materials, teacher-aide then traces over the enlargement and copies it on paper or the chalkboard.

The Graph

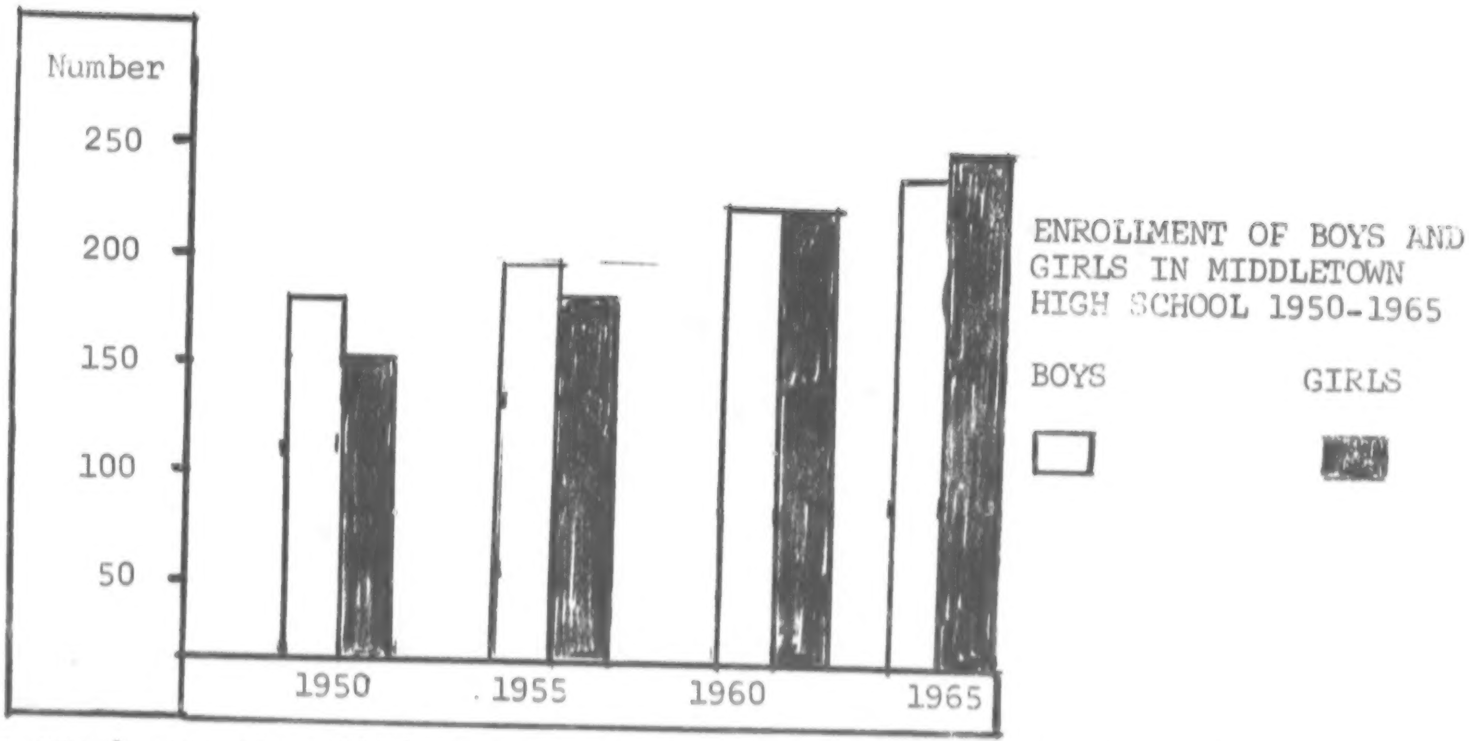
The graph is used to present some type of quantitative data. There are five common types of graphs with which teacher-aides should be familiar. Each type is especially suited for specific purposes. A question may arise concerning what the difference is between diagrams and graphs or charts and graphs. Graphs may be diagrams or they may be charts, but in both cases they present numerical data. Diagrams and charts do not necessarily present numerical data.

The area graph is the simplest kind of quantitative comparison. Geometric shapes (circles, squares, etc.) are used to give a visual comparison of two or more items, e.g.

SAMPLE DESIGN OF AREA GRAPH

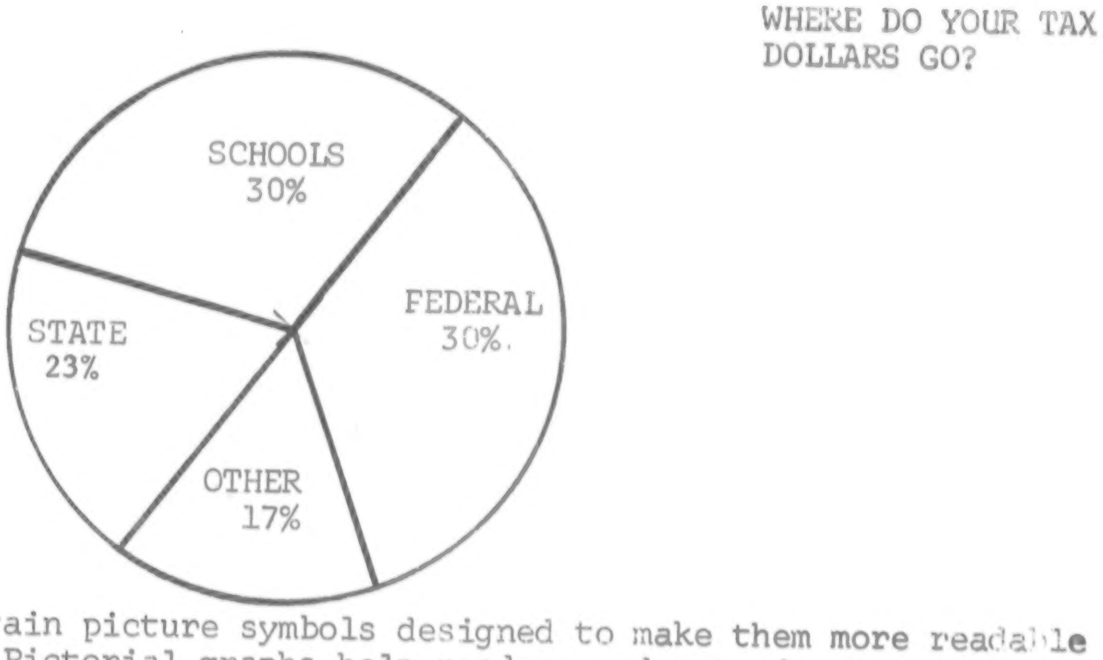


Another type graph is the bar graph. Normally, the bar graph as with other graphs, should be made with extreme accuracy. The graph may be made so that the bars are vertical to the floor or so they run horizontal with it. It is possible to run two or more comparisons on the same graph.



The graph compares different years, but it also compares boys and girls. Pictorial symbols can be used to dress up your graphs as can color.

SAMPLE DESIGN OF
PIE GRAPH



Some graphs contain picture symbols designed to make them more readable than other graphs. Pictorial graphs help readers understand points which may be difficult otherwise. Pictorial graphs should be as simple as possible and they should show only essential data. Pictorial graphs show approximate values instead of exact values.

To tell certain types of statistical stories accurately, line graphs are preferred. It is particularly useful in plotting trends or relationships in sets of data. There are numerous variations and combinations of the simple line graph.

The Poster

Posters are pictorial designs which tell a one-theme story or narrative. One of the most common type of posters is the highway billboard. In guiding teacher-aides who make posters, several production pointers are recommended:

1. Aim at one purpose
2. Make the message clear to all
3. Make it colorful
4. Large enough to be seen--at least 22 by 28 inches
5. Related to topic being studied

The Bulletin Board

Bulletin boards should be used by the teacher to introduce new facts and ideas to the class, and they enable students to work as a group in making bulletin boards in which they share their learning experiences. Bulletin boards should attract and hold attention, get across the message, develop a belief or commitment, and produce action.

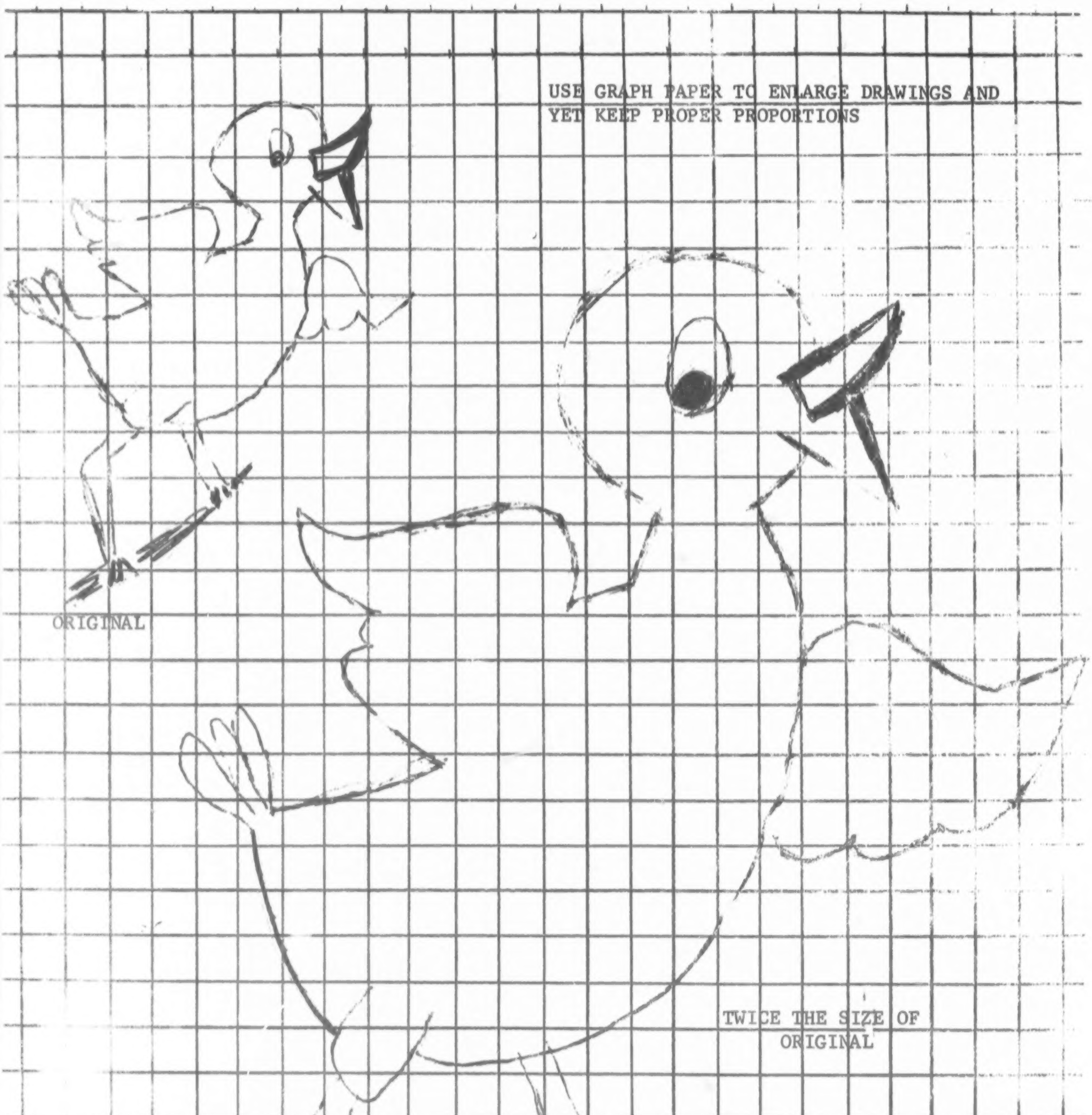
In planning bulletin boards, the maker should have a definite goal in mind:

1. To make possible the class study of many instructional materials for which there is only one copy
2. To stimulate student interest
3. To save time
4. To encourage student participation
5. To provide a review
6. To help children learn to communicate visually

The bulletin board display requires careful attention to organization and planning. A yearly plan for bulletin boards is helpful to teacher-aides since they are then able to have bulletin boards prepared on time, and have a longer period of time to collect the materials. Several rough sketches of the design will help in selecting the best lay out.

In helping teacher-aides prepare functional bulletin boards, the following guidelines are presented:

1. Prepare interesting titles
2. Relate all illustration to the specific subject or topic
3. Mount all pictures and visual materials
4. Caption all illustrations
5. Make the bulletin board tell a story
6. Use color harmony and balance
7. Change material frequently
8. Arrange pictures and materials in orderly and interesting manner



USE GRAPH PAPER TO ENLARGE DRAWINGS AND YET KEEP PROPER PROPORTIONS

ORIGINAL
TWICE THE SIZE OF ORIGINAL

The community surrounding every school contains many opportunities for children to learn. Children studying government can observe their city or county government in action. Elementary school children enjoy visiting the fire or police station, and the newspaper office. In fact, every community has these and many other kinds of places that children can be taken if teachers plan and carry out field trips for them. Also, in every community there are many persons who have much to offer children. For example, there are people who have traveled throughout the nation and the world. In most cases, these people have color slides that have much educational value for school-age children. Also, there are people who have various kinds of hobbies and they are willing to share them with others.

Teacher-aides can do much to help teachers in discovering the resources available. By working together, teacher-aides could prepare a list of different places in the community in which field trips may be taken and the age group that should be involved. Teacher-aides could prepare a list of names of people with interesting and educational experiences who would make them available to the teachers by coming to the schools.

Teacher-aides can also help teachers by knowing what to do when children are taken on field trips. In many schools, teachers are discouraged from taking children on field trips because of the fear that children may be hurt when away from school. Providing your school systems approves field trips, teacher-aides should be prepared to assume responsibility in carrying out the visitations, such as:

1. Know what the children are expected to do from the time they leave school until they get back.
2. Get acquainted with each child's buddy and make sure they stay in pairs.
3. Help the leaders in their efforts to lead the group.
4. Bring up the rear of the line to prevent straggling.
5. When the class is crossing the street, stand in the middle of the crossing and direct the traffic.
6. While in busses, encourage children to remain seated.
7. Make sure that all children get to the toilet before leaving the school or at scheduled stops.
8. Be familiar with safety hazards at the places being visited; so children will not be hurt.

4

"The education of a teacher is a process whereby each individual is offered numerous personal choices as he lives through a variety of experiences."
Martin Haberman

LESSON XXI

CAREER OPPORTUNITIES FOR TEACHER-AIDES

A. Description of Lesson:

Lesson XXI is designed to encourage teacher-aides to give serious consideration to a lifetime career in educational services. In Part I, an outline of what career development entails, presents items, such as permanent employment, monetary incentives, and new responsibilities. Part II presents a review of the teacher-aide movement from the Bay City, Michigan, program in 1959, to the career ladder that has been strongly recommended by Bank Street College of Education in New York City.

B. Purposes of Lesson:

(1) To establish the needs of educational services as a career.

(2) To review the effective institutionalization of teacher-aides into the educational program.

(3) To provide a historical perspective of the teacher-aide programs.

(4) To encourage teacher-aides to accept the challenge of striving to move up on the career ladder.

C. Assignment of Personnel: (Is applicable only if a director is assigned to conduct regularly scheduled training sessions)

It is highly recommended that a representative from a local community college meet with the teacher-aides and explain opportunities for training in an institution of higher education. The trainer of teacher-aides should be prepared to present the official view of the school board on the career ladder concept and differentiated salaries that are affected by training and experience. Adequate time should be allowed for teacher-aides to ask questions.

D. Materials Needed:

The materials needed for Lesson XXI would depend primarily upon the information and materials that the college representative could either make available to the teacher-aides or use in his presentation. The trainer may wish to present his discussion in chart form.

E. Content of Lesson:

PART I
INTRODUCTION

A career may be defined as making progress and/or having success in one's chosen lifework in which special training is demanded. Before careers for teacher-aides become a reality, there must be permanency in their employment. In many rural areas, teacher-aides are confronted with uncertainities that arise when appointments are made on a year to year basis and when they are employed for only nine months out of the year.

The career concept also lags bacause administrators have failed to provide monetary incentives for teacher-aides to become more proficient through experience and additional training. In rural areas where non-professional public employees have remained unorganized, teacher-aides have been treated similarly to clerks and custodians. Generally, there has been very little spread between the highest and lowest paid employee and little concern for the retention of truly competent workers.

Career development signifies the determination of professional educators to bring teacher-aides into the school setting as full and equal partners in the education processes which means that teacher-aides will have opportunities to become more than clerks. To progress and be successful in their chosen life's work, teacher-aides must possess far more than the common sense they have accumulated throughout the years. It is expected that they will learn through their job experiences as well as through formalized instruction which will give them a theoretical base for the improvement of job skills.

The institutionalization of teacher-aides upon a permanent career ladder, compels educators, teacher-aides, and the public to invesitgate the lasting contributions of various functions by teacher-aides in the improvement of educational opportunities of boys and girls. Career advancement is assured only when teacher-aides perform vital services in which children benefit either directly or indirectly. Additionally, it is assumed that highly creative and skilled persons will not be relegated to positions where monotony eventually takes over.

The career development concept is not necessarily a plan to create new jobs for the nation's poor people, but neither is it an intent to establish selective job qualifications that automatically screen them out. Decisions on policy which reflect either of the extremes may not bring about improved education through new organizations in the classrooms and schools or by improving educators' accountability to all segments of the school community.

The career development of teacher-aides should guarantee that the traditional chores of teachers would diminish gradually and that teachers would eventually perform more highly specialized responsibilities in teaching. Orchestrating the classroom activities to provide a wide array of learning experiences for children emerges as a new teaching skill for most teachers. The career development of teacher-aides, then, dictates a compensating career development for teachers in which they have opportunities to initiate more challenging professional activities in their teaching.

Career development of teacher-aides brings the community closer to its schools. Career personnel gain essential attributes that make them more valuable intermediaries between the schools and the community. In their gradually improved understandings of school community relations, career teacher-aides develop a firm foundation upon which to seek greater involvement and participation in school matters. Well informed teacher-aides are qualified to work for goals of education that reflect the needs of the community. They are in a position to bring about change in the schools. Naturally, teacher-aides grow in their capabilities of interpreting existing practices to parents.

The new careers for teacher-aides may call for new directions in programs provided by two-year and four-year community colleges. Although junior-colleges are seemingly more job oriented than four-year colleges for people seeking training in short-term programs there is an urgent need for revision in admission policies which are presently established to conform to the needs of middle-class youth. Mature adults who did not finish high school, should have opportunity to prove themselves in college without having to complete certain number of high school credits or their equivalency. Teacher-aides should probably receive college credits for work experiences in the schools. Also, four year colleges should accept all credits from accredited junior colleges. Admittedly, these suggested practices may not be effected in typically conservative rural areas.

PART II
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In order for the teacher-aide to appreciate the efforts of educators to bring about career opportunities for teacher-aides, a brief review of the literature is presented. The review goes back ten years or at a time when national attention was being focused on the teacher-aide program in Bay City, Michigan.

The first steps in role development distributed the professional duties to the teachers and other duties to the nonprofessional person. But, in February, 1959, G. T. Kowitz stated the team approach in the learning-teaching processes may bring about effective utilization of teacher-aides. According to Kowitz:

> The teacher projects are a gross violation of the traditional role of the teacher. No longer is he the sole and final authority by the simple fact that he is the biggest and smartest person in the room....Whether it was a part of the plan or not, the child is given a choice of defensive and suggests that he must explain, if not justify, all of his actions to the assistant... These problems, of course, need not arise. Where the practioner is accustomed to managing adult helpers, and where the helper is well trained to assist, few of these problems would occur. But, modern concepts of managerial team work, even the basic ideas of managing human resources are beyond the scope of the teacher's professional training program. If a professional team is to be developed, the teacher may have to learn the skills of directing and managing a team. This will be a radical change in his role since, among other things, it will limit his contacts with the pupils and introduce at least one other major force into the matrix of human relations within the classroom.[1]

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[1] G. T. Kowitz, "Problems in Teacher Utilization", American School Board Journal, Vol. 138, February, 1959, p. 25.

Earl H. Hanson responded to G. T. Kowitz by projecting a reason for the teacher's difficulty in accepting a teacher-aide:

> He (Kowitz) clearly points out that the relationship between the teacher and the teacher-aide is extremely difficult. I think the cause lies in the desire ov every human being to gain status and save face. Some teachers will see the aide as a threat to status and so may use artificial means to mark the difference between a truly professional person, herself, and a nonprofessional person, the aide. Her manners and her whole attitude may become stilted, unnatural, she might put on an act and get "teachgr-ish", preachy, bossy, and so spoil everybody's appetite.[2]

More recently, George Denemark elaborated on the emerging role of the classroom teacher:

> The job of today's teacher has become virtually unmanageable. Unless something is done to remedy the situation, creative, competent teachers will find themselves hopelessly bogged down in technical and clerical duties which could be performed by others..America's children will be cheated out of the quality education they deserve. Curricula will be standardized rather than individualized because schools keep their teachers busy collecting money, recording attendance, and supervising lunchrooms instead of counseling with students, planning learning experiences with colleagues, and analyzing recent teaching efforts. Teaching--real teaching, as opposed to merely keeping school--is a complex, demanding process calling for scholarship, sensitivity, analytical ability and considerable coordinating skill..A thoughtful analysis of the teaching responsibilities ...will disclose many different levels of skill. Some require advanced professional knowledge of a high order; other, professional skill at a rather modest level. Still others seem primarily technical in nature, while some appear to be of quite routine clerical character. All make a contribution to the education of children. All need to be planned and coordinated by an experienced, professionally competent teacher. But must all be carried out by the same individual?[3]

Speaking in support of the emerging role development for teachers, United States Senator Gaylord Nelson of Wisconsin delivered an address to his colleagues on Monday, January 30, 1967. Excerpts of his address are reported herein:

> It is clear that major efforts must be made to retain teachers now employed and to attract imaginative and dedicated new young people to the teaching profession...Teachers are alone among the professional people in the volume of nonprofessional work they are required to do...The teacher's

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[2] Earl T. Hanson, "Pros and Cons, Teacher Utilization," *American School Board Journal*, Vol 138, April, 1959, p. 12.

[3] George W. Denemark, "The Teacher and His Staff," *National Education* Journal, Vol. 55, December, 1966, pp. 17-18

> job has become loaded down with nonteaching duties.. The added responsibility of performing tedious nonteaching tasks has a greater effect than merely being time consuming...The teacher's image as a professional is tarnished and his morale is adversely affected. The years of study and intensive training teachers undergo result not only in inadequate salaries but in relegation to menial tasks that his fellow professionals, lawyers, technicians, and scientists do have to do..How can a teacher, so immersed in trivia, give proper attention and counsel to his students?...The problems created by modern society and technology are new and so must solutions be new. Old patterns of thought and policy must be replaced when circumstances prove them outmoded.[4]

In November, 1966, the Classroom Teachers National Study Conference was devoted to the topic of "The Classroom Teacher and His Supportive Staff." One of their speakers was Grant Venn who reported:

> Teachers must have a team of people working with them to relieve them of some of their nonteaching duties if they are going to have time to perform successfully their primary task--teaching. Only when the classroom teacher becomes the nucleus of a group of professional and paraprofessionals who work with him in educating children, only when he is looked upon as the key professional person in the education of children, utilizing and coordinating the talents and contributions of supportive staff, will the schools be able to provide all children with the education they must have to be contributing members of society.[5]

The Classroom Teachers National Study Conference developed the following list of nonprofessionals members of the teacher's supportive staff:

Teacher-Aide

General teacher-aide

Curriculum laboratory assistant
(cut stencils, make transparencies, filmstrips, and slides)

Audiovisual technician

Physical education aide

Science laboratory assistant

Aides for special classes

Bilingual aide

Audio assistant

Theme reader

TV staff and technician

Home visitor

Library aide

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[4] Gaylord Nelson, "Development of Teacher-Aide Programs," Congressional Record, Vol. 113, No. 12, Monday, January 30, 1967.

[5] Report of the Classroom Teachers National Study Conference on the Classroom Teacher and His Supportive Staff, "The Classroom Teacher Speaks of his Supportive Staff," Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1966 p. 1.

Clerical-Aide

Secretary/Clerk

Monitor

Hall supervisor

Playground attendant

Recess supervisor

Study hall monitor

Test monitor

Lunch room monitor

Safety aide

Athletic game supervisor

Field trip supervisor

School bus attendant

Classroom monitor[6]

The movement toward new careers in the elementary and secondary schools reveals that teacher-aides have been most prominent. In fact, publicity of the early auxiliary programs referred only to teacher-aides. But the increasing responsibilities of the teacher-aides and the development of a career ladder for auxiliaries have expanded the utilization concept. Through training opportunities for specialization, the employed persons are now assuming more technical roles in the schools. Hence, the teacher-aide concept has given way to the career ladder for auxiliary school personnel. Although they continue to be the best known of the auxiliaries, teacher-aides comprise the entry level of the career ladder for auxiliary school personnel.

The early concern of the Bay City, Michigan, teacher-aide program was the threat to the professional status of the teachers. Charles Park, the Director of the Program, claimed that teachers were enthusiastic over the use of teacher-aides. In reference to the role of the teacher-aide, Park states:

> It may be difficult to draw a sharp line between an activity that is professional and one that is not professional in the process of conducting a classroom. But it is the intent of the study that there shall be no infringement upon the professional responsibilities of the certified teacher. In fact, when a teacher is absent, regular teacher substitutes are engaged and the aide is not allowed to take charge of the class..The director of the study maintains that in no instance were aides given responsibility even for handling minor phases of instruction without direct supervision from the teacher.[7]

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[6] Ibid., pp. 14-15

[7] Charles B. Park, *Op. Cit.*, p 55

To determine the attitudes of elementary school teachers toward the use of teacher-aides, Charles Hardaway polled 109 individuals during the summer session of 1956. The group consisted of 21 men and 88 women elementary teachers who were enrolled at Indiana State Teachers College. Only 8 teachers indicated they had ever taught in a school system where teacher-aides were employed, but 80 teachers were in favor of their use. Duties most frequently mentioned by the teachers as most suitable for teacher-aides were: supervising playground, cafeteria, and recreation, performing clerical duties, maintaining records and reports, assisting in special subject area, checking papers, handling funds, and assisting with materials. Hardaway's findings are reported below:

Outside Classroom Activities	Frequency of Mention (109 Teachers)
Playground supervision	58
Supervision of cafeteria, lunch period milk program	42
Mimeographing and duplicating work	27
Supervision of recreational periods	22
Clerical duties	16
Assisting small children with clothing, etc.	15
Helping with social activities (parties, plays, etc.)	12
Assisting with excursions, field trips, etc.	12
Hall Duties (supervision)	11
Rest room supervision	10
Helping with P.T.A. programs and activities including parent conferences and visitations	6
School bus patrol and loading	5
Extra-curricular activities	3
Helping with children who become ill	2
No answer	12
None	1

Inside Classroom Activities	Frequency of Mention
Maintaining records and reports	43
Assisting in some subject matter work	37
Checking papers, grading tests	35
Collection funds and handling money	29
Assisting with materials	29
Supervised study, remedial work, committee and small group activities, projects, guidance	22
Providing individual help, guiding seat work	21
Assisting with visual aids	19
Janitorial duties	18
Workbook supervision, marking, etc.	15
Assisting with bulletin boards, displays, blackboards, materials etc.	10
Assisting with library duties	10
Routine duties	5
None	6
No Answer	12

Although Hardaway's survey is ten years old, the duties that were mentioned are still characteristics of the normal work assignments for teacher-aides in rural areas and probably in urban centers, also. An important recent development has been the opportunities for teacher-aides to move upward toward certification as a full-time teacher.

A real break through in role development for auxiliary school personnel was reached with the recent establishment of the career development concept in which a five-step career ladder was visualized. The proposed career ladder included the aide category at the entry level and the fully certified teacher at the highest level. As originally conceived, an auxiliary could enter at any level for which he qualified, and could choose whether to move upward on the career ladder although it was strongly recommended that an auxiliary be treated with respect at all levels of employment. The career ladder which was publicized nationally by the Bank Street College of Education in New York City, is reported on the following page.

In the evolution of a partnership approach to the teaching-learning processes in which they assume a supportive role to teacher, teacher-aides and other auxiliary personnel in education should eventually gravitate toward those duties and responsibilities for which they are best suited as they should become acutely aware of their limitations as well as their strengths. The career ladder makes it possible for auxiliaries to be equal partners on the team even though there may be a wide variation in assignments made to its members.

The future appears brighter for auxiliary school personnel. Their employment is no longer viewed with skepticism by teachers. In fact, teachers in some schools have recommended the employment of auxiliaries as a contractual condition. Although auxiliary personnel programs in rural schools have been financed primarily with federal funds, more and more administrators of urban and suburban schools are presently securing local tax monies for the employment of nonprofessionals. Rural administrators are certain to follow the patterns established for urban areas.

The professional acceptance of teacher-aides brought about a refinement of their roles which has included a more sophisticated approach to classroom assignments. The teacher-aide concept is now giving way to a broader and more comprehensive interpretation of auxiliary school personnel as evident by the emerging careers as teacher assistant, teacher associate, library associate, counselor assistant, etc. The emerging new careers movement in the schools is bringing new hope to disadvantaged people in all areas of the Nation as the Congress has appropriated funds to provide opportunities.

A teacher-aide may ask why it is that he is given information in which the words of other people have been quoted. Like it or not, a teacher-aide is a part of a nationwide movement to establish new careers in America; one of which is the teacher-aide. Once teacher-aides are provided career opportunities, no teacher-aide wishes to remain on the present level for the next 10 years. Certainly, the teacher-aide will want to be rewarded for increasingly greater skills in getting assigned jobs completed. The major purpose of this section is to give the teacher-aide hope for the future in the new career movement. It is intended to give him encouragement to find an acceptable place as a school auxiliary and to think of the job as being permanent and of the opportunities to gravitate upward in position status.

POSSIBLE STAGES IN CAREER DEVELOPMENT OF AUXILIARIES [8]

STAGE	ILLUSTRATIVE FUNCTIONS	TRAINING SUGGESTED
1. AIDE, SUCH AS:		
General School Aide..	Clerical, monitorial, custodial duties	Brief orientation period (2 or 3 wks.) in human development, social relations, and the school's goals and procedures as well as basic skill training. No specified pre-schooling required.
Lunchroom Aide.......	Serving and preparation of food, monotorial duties	
Teacher Aide.........	Helping teacher in classroom as needed	
Family Worker or Aide.	Appointments, escorting, and related duties	
Counselor Aide........	Clerical, receptionists, and related duties	
Library Aide..........	Helping with cataloging and distribution of books	
2. ASSISTANT, SUCH AS:		
Teacher Assistant.....	More relationship to instructional process	High school diploma or equivalent; one year's in-service training or one year in college with practicum Both can be on a work-study while working as a aide.
Family Assistant......	Home visits and organizing parent meetings	
Counselor Assistant...	More work with records, listening to children sent from class to counselor's office because they are disrupting class	
Library Assistant.....	More work with pupils in selecting books and reading to them	
3. ASSOCIATE, SUCH AS:		
Teacher Associate....	More responsibility with less supervision from professional	A.A. degree from a two-year college or two year special program in a four-year college
Home-School Associate.		
Counselor Associate...		
Library Associate.....		
Social Work Associate.		
4. TEACHER-INTERN, SUCH AS:		
Student Teacher.......	Duties very similar to those of associate but with more involvement in diagnosis and planning	B.A. or B.S. degree and enrollment in a college of teacher education or enrollment in an institution and working for a degree and teacher certification
5. TEACHER		

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[8] New Partners in the American School, A Study of Auxiliary Personnel in Education. New York: Bank Street College of Education, November, 1967 pp.8-9

"Without health there is no happiness." Thomas Jefferson

LESSON XXII

HEALTH EDUCATION IN THE SCHOOLS

A. Description of Lesson:

The content of Lesson XXII is divided into four major parts: (1) Introduction to Health, (2) Health Environment, (3) Health Services, and (4) Health Education. Part One is a brief overview of health. Part Two covers the setting of the school. Part Three covers the well-being of the school personnel. Part Four covers the learning experiences of the school children.

B. Purposes of Lesson:

(1) To orient the trainees to the meaning and significance of health.

(2) To familiarize the trainees with the three areas of school health.

(3) To aid the trainees in understanding what is included in each of the three areas of school health.

(4) To assist the trainees in being able to participate in each of the three areas of school health.

(5) To train the trainees to be helpers of the teacher in each of the three areas of school health.

C. Assignments of Personnel:

Along with the trainees, it would be most helpful to have as many of the teachers as possible attend the training session. A Health Education Specialist or an Elementary Teacher who has completed at least a Minor in Health Education should conduct the training session (trainer) and should be available as a consultant to the trainees.

D. Materials Needed:

The trainer should utilize any simple visual aids that may be available.

E. Content of Lesson:

PART ONE: INTRODUCTION TO HEALTH

(The trainer should present, on a lecture-discussion basis, a general orientation of Health and to the School Health Program)

Health is not hygiene (the care of the body) or physiology (the function of the body); but health is living. Because everyone is alive, everyone has health. The way a person lives affects his health. Or in other words, your health depends upon YOU! If you have better health, you will have better living.

In your work as a teacher-aide you will want to help the school children to have better health. Because the school children are young and inexperienced they will need your aid in order that they may become aware of good health and they may practice good health.

The way in which you practice health will have an influence upon the school children. Therefore, you always should be practicing good health. Remember that your "example" is the best teacher.

Health in the school is divided into three areas:

(a) Health Environment,

(b) Health Services,

(c) Health Education.

Each part of the next parts of this lesson covers one of these areas. When you become familiar with these three areas, you will be more able to help the school children to have better health.

PART TWO: HEALTH ENVIRONMENT

(The trainer should present, on a lecture-discussion basis, the meanings in regard to Health Environment)

Health Environment is concerned with the setting of the school. This means the buildings and the grounds, the transportation, and the food service.

Under building and grounds, you would be concerned with the following:

1. General cleanliness of the classroom.
2. Condition of the classroom furniture.
3. Ventilation of the classroom.
4. Freedom of the classroom aisles from objects and slipperiness.
5. Orderly movement by the school children in the corridors and on the stairways.
6. Proper use by the school children of the drinking fountains.
7. Hand washing by the school children after using the lavatory (rest room).
8. General cleanliness of playground area.
9. Safety of the playground equipment.
10. Proper observance by the school children of the fire drills.

Under transportation, you would be concerned with the following:

1. Respect by the school children for members of the safety patrol and crossing guards.
2. Careful crossing by the school children of the streets.
3. Orderly getting on and off by the school children of the school busses.
4. Careful and safe use by the school children of bicycles.

Under food service, you would be concerned with the following:

1. Careful hand washing by the school children before eating.
2. Selection and eating by the school children of nutritious meals (not candy, potato chips, soda pop, etc.).
3. Not sharing by the school children of their food with others.
4. Disposal or washing by the school children of food which has fallen on the floor.
5. Avoidance by the school children of horseplay (unsafe behavior) in lunchroom (cafeteria).

PART THREE: HEALTH SERVICES

(The trainer should present, on a lecture-discussion the meanings in regard to Health Services)

Health Services is concerned with the well-being of the school personnel. This means the health examinations, the follow-up services, and the emergency care of illness and injury.

Under health examinations, you would be concerned with the following:

1. Assisting, as may be requested by the teacher, at health examinations and tests (physical, vision, hearing, height and weight, etc.) of the school children.
2. Recording, as may be directed by the teacher, of information obtained from health examinations and tests of the school children.
3. Observation of the school children in regard to any signs and symptoms of abnormal health (general appearance, behavior, habits).
4. Reporting to the teacher of any significant signs and symptoms of abnormal health which may be noticed in the school children.

Under follow-up services you would be concerned with the following:

1. Encouraging the school children in the securing of needed care for any health abnormality.

2. Assisting the school children in the development of a sense of personal responsibility for their own health.

3. Helping the school children in the obtaining of needed immunizations.

4. Aiding, under the direction of the teacher, the special (handicapped) school children.

Under the emergency care of illness and injury, you would be concerned with the following:

1. Assisting the teacher and/or other professional personnel, insofar as possible, in regard to emergency care of illness and injury of the school children.

2. Reporting and recording, as may be directed by the teacher and/or other professional personnel, the nature of illness and injury of the school children.

3. Arranging, as may be directed by the teacher and/or other professional personnel, the transportation of the ill or injured school children.

PART FOUR: HEALTH EDUCATION

(The trainer should present, on lecture-discussion basis, the meanings in regard to Health Education.)

Health Education is concerned with the learning experiences of the school children. This means the direct teaching, the indirect teaching, and the incidental teaching.

Under direct teaching, you would be concerned with the following:

1. Assisting the teacher in the health teaching of the school children in the health period or class.

2. Setting an example for the school children in regard to your health practices, especially in the health period or class.

3. Observation of the school children in regard to their health practices, especially in the health period or class.

4. Encouraging the school children in regard to the acquiring of sound health practices, especially in the health period or class.

Under teaching you would be concerned with the following:

1. Assisting the teacher in the health teaching of the school children in periods or classes other than health.

2. Setting an example for the school children in regard to your health practices, in periods or classes other than health.

3. Observation of the school children in regard to their health practices, in periods or classes other than health.
4. Encouraging the school children in regard to the acquiring of sound health practices, in periods or classes other than health.

Under incidental teaching you would be concerned with the following:

1. Assisting the teacher in the health teaching of the school children in any unplanned situations in which health teaching may be appropriate.
2. Setting an example for the school children in regard to your health practices, in any unplanned situations in which health teaching may be appropriate.
3. Observation of the school children in regard to their health practices, in any unplanned situations in which health teaching may be appropriate.
4. Encouraging the school children in regard to their acquiring of sound health practices, in any unplanned situations in which health teaching may be appropriate.

F. Follow-Up Procedures:

The following follow-up procedures would be most helpful:

(1) Orientation of the trainees as to the facilities, the policies, and the personnel of the School Program.

(2) Tour by the trainees of the policies of the school, especially in regard to health.

(3) Review by the trainees of the policies of the school, especially in regard to health.

(4) Introduction of the trainees to the personnel of the school, especially in regard to health.

G. Evaluation:

True or False Summary of Lesson Content

(If statement is true, mark with a "T"; if statement is false, mark with a "F".)

____ 1. Health is hygiene or physiology.

____ 2. Health is living.

____ 3. Your health depends upon you.

____ 4. The teacher-aide will not have an influence upon the health of the school children.

____ 5. Regarding health, your "example" is the best teacher.

____ 6. Hand washing by the school children after using the lavatory (rest room) is widely practiced.

____ 7. Proper observance by the school children of the fire drills is a waste of time.

____ 8. Respect by the school children for the members of the safety patrol and crossing guards is most necessary.

____ 9. Selection and eating by the school children of nutritious meals has an important effect upon health.

____10. The sharing by the school children of their food with others is to be discouraged.

____11. Observation of the school children in regard to any signs and symptoms of abnormal health is an important function of the teacher-aide.

____12. The teacher-aide has no responsibility in encouraging the school children in the securing of needed care for any health abnormality.

____13. There is little value for the school children in the obtaining of needed immunizations.

____14. The teacher-aide should assist the teacher and/or other professional personnel, insofar as possible, in regard to emergency care of illness and injury of the school children.

____15. The teacher-aide should arrange, as may be directed by the teacher and/or other professional personnel, the transportation of the ill or injured school children.

____16. Direct teaching is the health teaching of the school children in the health period or class.

____17. The teacher will not need any assistance in the health teaching of the school children in the health period or class.

____18. Setting an "example" for the school children in regard to your health practices, in periods or classes other than health, is of the greatest value.

____19. Incidental teaching is the health teaching of the school children in any unplanned situation in which health teaching may be appropriate.

____20. Observation of the school children in regard to their health practices, in any unplanned situation in which health teaching may be appropriate, rests entirely with the teacher.

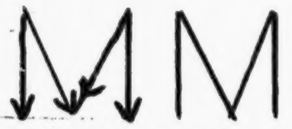
"Reading maketh a full man, conference a ready man, and writing an exact man." Francis Bacon

MINI-LESSON XXIII

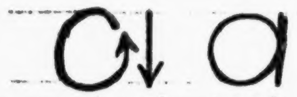
USING CORRECT FORM IN CURSIVE AND MANUSCRIPT WRITING

Manuscript Writing

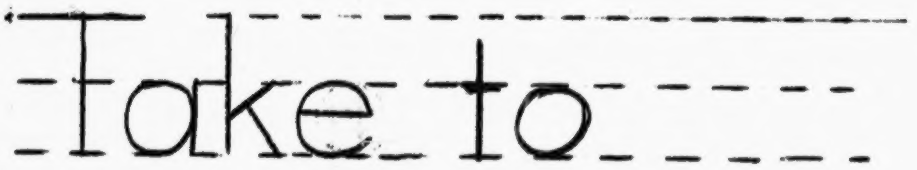
When studying the attached illustration of manuscript writing, the readers note that strokes used in manuscript writing are comprised of straight lines, circles, and parts of circles. Straight lines begin at the top as per illustration



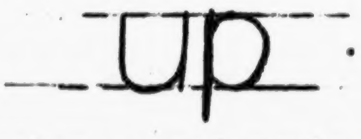
Circles and parts of circles start at the top and move right or left and then down as per illustration:



Capital letters and tall lower-case (small) letters are the same height which is double the space of small letters. For better proportion, the small "T" may be 1½ spaces tall as per illustration.



Letters with loops below the base line should go down about ½ space; so that they will not interfere with words placed on the next line



To help you further develop a good style in manuscript writing, the following procedural guide is provided:

Capital-Letter Procedures:

A--slant, slant, across
B--down, out curve in, out curve in
C--Curve
D--down, curve
E--down, out, out, out
F--down, out, out
G--curve, and in
H--down, down, across
I--down, across, across
J--down, curve, across
K--down, slant, slant
L--down, out
M--down, slant, slant, down
N--down, slant, down
O--around
P--down, around
Q--around, slant
R--down, around, slant
S--curve, and curve
T--down, across
U--down, curve, down
V--slant, slant
W--slant, slant, slant, slant
X--slant, slant across
Y--slant, slant, down
Z--across, slant, out

Small-Letter Procedures:

a--around, down
b--down, around
c--curve
d--around, down
e--across, curve
k--down, slant, slant
l--down
m--down, curve, down, curve, down
n--down, curve, down
o--around
p--down, around
q--around, down
r--down, curve

f--curve, down, out
g--around, down, curve
h--down, curve, down
i--down, dot
j--down, curve, dot
s--curve and curve
t--down, across
u--down, curve, down
v--slant, slant
w--slant, slant, slant, slant
x--slant, across slant
y--down, curve, down, curve
z--across, slant, out

The procedures outlined above provide for the writer to begin at a point farthest to the left then move progressively to the right.

The beginning point of a round stroke determines the direction of the stroke. For example in writing the "d", move upward and to the left, and for the "b," move upward and to the right.

The writer must learn to space words carefully by leaving an imaginary "o" between words. For the letters "l" and "i" use slightly less than one-half space normally used for other letters. Letters, such as "m", "g", and "w" take more space than letters, such as "c", "d" and "z".

The space between letters in the same word will vary according to the shapes and sizes of the letters. For example, round letters may be placed closer together than can other shaped letters.

The letters should have uniform thickness and size and the lines should be firm and definite.

Cursive Writing

The ultimate goal of the education is to prepare every child to write in cursive writing; so that it is legible to anyone who wishes to read the written words. To achieve this goal, teachers in all grades should be prepared and willing to help children develop a satisfying style in cursive writing. Some school systems have adopted a style that is to be taught to all children. It is important that teacher-aides become acquainted with that system; so that they will develop the ability to write on paper and on the chalkboard with ease using the recommended letter forms. (Teachers in first and second grades will be using the manuscript form which means that teacher-aides assigned to teachers in those grades develop the same type of proficiency with manuscript writing.) Any teacher-aide, who cannot already use the correct letter styles should learn them as speedily as possible.

Procedural Guidelines:

The letters (l, b, h, k, and f) are basically the same.

The small letters (m, n, v, x, y, and z) have in them the same beginning stroke.

The capitals (B, P, R) have the same beginning stroke.

The capitals (H, M, N, Y, V, W, and X) have a common beginning stroke.

All capital and tall small letters are twice the size of other small letters.

At the end of words, letters are finished with an upward stroke without exception.

The capital letters (D, F, L, O, P, Q, T, V, W, X) do not join small letters in words.

Combinations of letters used most frequently are (er, in, en, re, st, th, ea, ar, on, se, or, an, nd, ae, ve, ow, ro, ut, es, de, me, ec). These are excellent combinations for the teacher-aide to practice on to develop automatic correctness.

Letters extending below the line go one-half space down.

The ending stroke of all words should be the height of small letters.

Procedural outline for improving cursive handwriting:

I. The person should analyze his handwriting according to standard attached or by standard used in the school system if it varies from the one provided.

II. Practice a few minutes every day.

III. After each practice session, the person should compare his writing with the recommended standard.

Manuscript

Aa Bb Cc Dd Ee Ff Gg
Hh Ii Jj Kk Ll Mm Nn
Oo Pp Qq Rr Ss Tt Uu
Vv Ww Xx Yy Zz
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0

Cursive

Aa Bb Cc Dd Ee Ff
Gg Hh Ii Jj Kk Ll
Mm Nn Oo Pp Qq
Rr Ss Tt Uu Vv
Ww Xx Yy Zz

"He flattered himself on being a man without any prejudices; and this pretention itself is a very great prejudice." Anatole France

MINI-LESSON XXIV

HELPING CHILDREN IMPROVE INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS

Cultural differences are not new in our nation. In the early days of our country's history, people struggled toward unity with a population of different ethnic orgins and class distinctions from the European countries. Some people came to America as aristocrats, others came as bonded workers, some came to avoid persecution in their native land, and others were forced to come here as slaves. After the creation of the Constitution, immigrants from many countries came to America and among them were large groups from non-English speaking countries. Throughout the building of the United States as we know it today, Americans gradually built a culture of their own, but it has resulted from the contributions made by all of the different minority groups which have comprised our nation.

Teacher-aides should examine their own feelings, prejudices, and reactions toward others. In understanding these feelings, teacher-aides may be more certain of setting good examples for children by accepting all children in the classrooms. Teacher-aides should ask basic questions of whether they are able to accept children of minority groups in the classroom and also to accept these children's parents in situations outside the schools. To aid them in building respect for minority groups in their community or in the nation, the following information is presented:

There is No Superior Race or Social Group

After much research, it has been concluded by some authorities that there are no innate (being born with it) differences in intellectual potential among racial, ethnic, or religious groups. Of course, there are many differences in individuals within the groups. A significant factor, however, is socio-economic status. For example, a bright child growing up in a home where reading is despised, and where schooling is scorned will find it difficult to act like an intelligent child in school where reading and education are prized.

Many educators now maintain that standardized tests have "cultural bias" that operates against youngsters from a poor or culturally impoverished environment. These educators claim it is extremely difficult to get accurate scores from rural children when the tests were developed to test city children. Also, some educators say tests administered to Spanish-speaking children will not produce the same results obtained when the same test is administered to English-speaking children. During recent years, there has been an assessment of differences in intellectual ability of Negro and white children. Some people have thought Negroes are innately (born with) less intelligence than most whites. The evidence seems to support the conclusions that Negro children have scored lower on tests because of the environment in which they have grown up and because of the motivation of the children to succeed. The evidence seems to recommend the practice of identifying talented students from all minority groups and devoting special attention toward them. Unless everyone who works with children from minority groups, such as the disadvantaged children in Eastern Kentucky strives to identify their true abilities many potentially bright children may be overlooked.

Children Recognize Group Differences:

Many adults, including teachers, assume that young children are unaware of racial, ethnic, religious, or social differences in other people. However, it appears that almost from the first day that children are placed in a school group of different backgrounds, the children begin to identify those that belong to their own groups and to distinguish them from the groups around them. Children apparently have the same"anti" or "pro" feelings and attitudes toward groups that their parents or other adults around them exhibit. Children mirror the adults around them and apparently gain attitudes and opinions more from what adults think and say than from interacting with the people of other groups.

Attitudes Toward Group Differences Are Learned:

Although children reveal that they observe differences in groups at very early ages, it does not mean that they were born with an awareness of those differences. Since the newborn child cannot conceive his group identity, it is obvious that members of his family begin to impart their own opinions on the child about other racial, ethnic, religious or social groups. Many times, the information seems to be passed on from generation to generation without anyone in the family actually being aware that these attitudes and opinions are being taught to the young children in the family.

It is a perfectly logical and natural part of education to believe that group differences are learned. The damage results, then, when the child begins to learn through adult behavior that some groups of people are "bad" or that other groups of people are always "good", or some are more intelligent, etc.

Since attitudes are learned, it becomes the goal of education to help children unlearn undesirable attitudes and substitute more desirable attitudes in their place. This is easily said, but difficult to achieve. It takes more than a few lessons from a textbook or an example in the classroom. To illustrate, it has been shown that children can learn the proper attitude in the classroom and then ignore what has been learned when he gets away from the school. It takes a long time and good examples by adults to eventually bring about changes in attitudes toward minority groups where public sentiment has run high against the group for a long time.

Some Guidelines for Teacher-Aides:

Differences usually spell unhappiness for the children who are noticeably different from most of the children in a classroom. Differences in groups can cause trouble and unhappiness to all of the children within the classroom or school. The inevitable placement of children from different groups in the same classroom may bring about competition and disagreements that will divide the children even though they have been friends at one time. Adults sometimes accentuate the differences instead of minimizing them.

It is recognized that the school program cannot ignore group differences since the children do not. When the school personnel design programs that build acceptance of group differences, however, there are less hostitilities among the groups than when nothing is done.

Since the schools are open to all children, regardless of who they are, what they look like, or from where they come, it is apparent that the school program should be designed to meet all of their needs. Teacher-aides should avoid favoring one group over another -- all children should get equal treatment in the schools and equal opportunity. Some studies have shown that boys get poorer marks than girls even though standardized tests show boys do as well as girls in achievement. Boys apparently receive more reprimands than girls. Children from the "better homes" are more likely to be selected for office, to be in many clubs, etc., than are the children from minority or from poorer homes. Children from low-income homes are retained more readily than are other children.

Every teacher-aide will find it very beneficial to know the types of homes where all of the children in the school come. The teacher-aide should become acquainted with all of the racial, ethnic, religious, and socio-economic groups in the community and to discover the feelings of others toward these groups. If teacher-aides belong to a minority group, they should demonstrate their strong desires to be treated as equals without either receiving special treatment or being discriminated against.

Some guidelines for developing desirable school practices in improving interpersonal relations are presented below:

1. Healthy group relationships are promoted when unjust comparisons are eliminated:

Teacher-aides should not be a party of labeling groups, such as that is the "slow group" and that is the "fast group"; these are the "nice children" and the others are "little rowdies"; and these children are from "good homes" and these are from "bad homes". The child's self-concept and his concept of others are built up from hearing these type of comments over and over. The child who hears he is bad for a long time will no doubt end up being bad; or the child who hears he cannot read will probably end up being a poor reader.

2. Changes in attitude also bring changes in feelings:

Children do not change their attitudes because facts are presented to them to illustrate why they should change. Only when a child really feels the emotional and moral appeal to attitudinal change will he be tempted to change and even then it may be a long process.

3. Children may be helped to change their attitudes through personal experiences:

Many of the child's attitudes toward people of different groups have come about through stereotype images (all Chinese are laundrymen as an example). Other stereotype images have been the old maid school teacher, the Italian peddler, the Irish cop, the Negro servant, and the English butler. In order to dispel the stereotypes that have spread through mass media and by other ways, the teacher-aide could read about the contributions that people of all nationalities, and other groups have made to our culture and provide these illustrations to children who have misconceptions.

4. Children need help in acquiring understanding of how it feels to be in the other fellow's shoes:

Children can be cruel and make cutting remarks or they may be ashamed of their parents. When teacher-aides sense that a child is having conflicts about having his mother attend P.T.A. or other school meetings, she may be able to show the child how it feels to be looked down at. When the teacher-aide hears a child make a cruel statement about another child, again she has a wonderful opportunity to teach the child an object lesson without scolding the child because punishment only strengthens the child's original belief.

"Libraries are not made; they grow" Augustine Birrell

MINI-LESSON XXV

WORKING IN THE LIBRARY

The purposes of the school library come about through studying the recorded information it contains and the way the information is to be used in the teaching processes in the school. Even in smaller schools, the library should be thought of as being more than just another classroom. The library is a service agency to teaching wherever instruction takes place. It is thought that the spreading of the services widely should improve the teaching in the school far more than in a school in which the library services are contained in a small area.

For a long time many educators have been debating the question of whether they should have centralized libraries or decentralized library facilities. In the decentralized approach, the teacher collects in his room the materials needed to teach the grade or subjects assigned. Under the decentralized plan, the school library provides very limited services to the children and to the teachers. Of course, the centralized library brings together all of the materials into one room and under the supervision of one teacher. Economically, the centralized library is cheaper to operate than is the decentralized library plan.

A solution to the problem in many schools has been to establish a strong centralized library, but with the stipulation that the teacher may choose from the library collections of the books and materials those that are appropriate to use, on a temporary basis, in the classrooms, in the laboratories, or other learning centers. These materials are delivered to the designated place for a designated length of time after which they are returned to the library. This plan provides for a revolving plan for the use of books and other materials.

Under the combination plan, the teachers assume the responsibility for the checking out and in of books and materials that are brought to her room. Librarians from the central library make certain that collections are being used and that they are meeting the needs of the school. Under this system, teachers and pupils learn to place little reliance on the decentralized collections as they discover that they must still go to the central library for many of their library services.

In presenting an outline on the library, it is recognized that there are not many library-aides in rural areas. It is felt, however that the library is the hub of all learning in the school building. Therefore every teacher-aide should have an opportunity to discover something about the operation of the library.

Purposes of the Library:

1. To create a love for reading.
2. To contribute to the academic achievement of boys and girls.
3. To discover and develop special interests of boys and girls.
4. To cultivate independent study techniques.
5. To provide up-to-date materials and knowledge of how to use them.
6. To support and enrich the total educational program of the school.

What is the Library:

1. The library is a service center for the school where sources of information are available to children.

2. A school library is a place where information is stored for future references to children's learning.

3. A school library is a laboratory where the learner may test concepts that have been introduced by a teacher.

4. A school library is the focal center of the school where teachers, administrators, children, and other personnel must come for materials in learning.

5. A school library may be a place where some students may go between classes to study with others or alone.

6. The library is an extension of the classroom.

Depending upon the location of the school and whether the library is in an elementary school or secondary school, the school library may not be all of these things.

Personal Qualifications of Teacher-Aides: (Serving as Library Assistants)

1. Display a genuine interest in books and libraries.

2. Ability to get along well with children and adults.

3. Ability to be accurate in performing duties.

4. Ability to perform routine clerical tasks.

5. Ability to remember past events over a period of time.

6. Ability to keep things in a tidy and neat order.

Who Uses the Library:

1. All children in the school.
2. All teachers.
3. Administrators.
4. In some schools, other adults.

How Is It Used:

A. Primary Grades (Grades 1-3)

   1. Story hour.
   2. Learning about the library and books.
   3. Learning library routines (checking out books, etc.)
   4. Supplemental reading materials.
   5. Exploring and developing reading interests.

B. Other Children Depending On Grade Level:

1. Checking out materials for reading, reports, and research.
2. Using library as a reading room.
3. Using library as a resource center to work on projects or research.
4. Using library as a place for group work or individual projects.
5. Further development of library routine and organization.

C. Teachers and Administrators:

1. Select and coordinate materials used in the school and/or classrooms.
2. Work with librarian on setting up library materials to correlate with courses of study.
3. Develop a professional library.
4. Establishment of a reading room and resource workshop for teachers and principals.

Suggested duties and responsibilities for teacher-aides (library assistants):

A. Clerical Functions:

1. Receiving and charging materials out.
2. Keeping records of distribution. Getting new materials ready for distribution.
3. Typing requests for materials.
4. Keep catalog cards up to date.
5. Maintain orderly control of audio-visual aids.
6. Handling overdue book lists.
7. Maintaining picture file.
8. Mending of books.
9. Maintain orderly control over periodicals.
10. Dust materials and keep room tidy and neat.

B. Semi-Professional Functions:

1. Gathering materials for vertical files.
2. Preparing bulletin boards.
3. Planning special exhibits.
4. Reading to small groups.
5. Listening to children read.
6. Assisting children in finding materials.
7. Utilizing special experiences or skills, such as puppetry, dramatics, etc.
8. Gathering materials for teachers.

MINI-LESSON XXVI

HELPING THE SPECIAL READING TEACHER

Many school systems have employed special reading teachers to work with children who require remedial instruction in that area. For a teacher-aide, who is assigned to the special reading laboratory, duties may be divided into two groups--clerical work and assisting the special teacher in the teaching program. The amount of time the aide devotes to each group of tasks depends on the working time that the aide spends with the reading teacher, and the training and experiences of the aide.

The teacher should carefully plan the duties that will be assigned to the teacher-aide. In this way, the aide will not end up being a clerk on one extreme or doing everything the teacher does at the other extreme. The teacher should realize the limitations on utilizing the teacher-aide as an assistant in the special reading laboratory; yet, she should recognize the great potential of using her to the best advantages. A trial and error approach to assigned duties may be the answer. In this way, the teacher-aide could assume a variety of tasks assigned by the teacher and then the teacher could return those duties to herself that the teacher-aide is not able to handle because of her limited experience. Every teacher-aide will have her own unique talents and might be able to assist in some areas where another aide could not and vice versa.

Continuous planning by the teacher and the teacher-aide is the key to an efficient operation of the reading laboratory. There may be weeks in which the teacher-aide devotes most of her time working with children, and then there may be periods of time in which she spends most of her time with the clerical tasks of recording scores, bringing folders up-to-date, testing, typing, etc. As she becomes more proficient on the job, she will be able to plan her clerical work to be completed when she is not needed in the laboratory. The teacher-aide, however, needs the continuous guidance of the special reading teacher in planning her work carefully.

Suggested Duties for Teacher-Aides:

Working with Children:

1. Helping with book selections
2. Listening to children report on books read
3. Helping them write stories
4. Supervising games
5. Listening to children read for enjoyment
6. Helping groups of children work on skills
7. Supervising oral reading groups
8. Working with children on skills needing practice
9. Reading to groups
10. Welcoming children as they come into the classroom
11. Praising children for work well done
12. Listening to anything that the children have to tell

Clerical Work:

1. Correcting standardized tests, papers, workbooks, etc.

2. Ordering supplies
3. Filing reports, records, dittos, teaching materials
4. Recording all information on children
5. Keeping attendance
6. Compiling all school and federal reports
7. Keep reading materials in order
8. Typing correspondence
9. Typing and duplicating teaching materials
10. Typing children's stories
11. Arranging conferences
12. Maintaining individual folders for children
13. Preparing bulletin boards
14. Making games, flash cards and other instructional materials

General Duties:

1. Operating audio-visual materials
2. Telephoning about routine matters
3. Running Errands
4. Distributing and collecting lesson materials
5. Supervising classroom in teacher's absence
6. Arranging games for children to play
7. Keep order in the room
8. Do routine testing
9. Observe children's behavior

Reading Stories to Children:

Children understand words they hear even though they are unable to recognize them in print. Thus stories read to children help them to improve their language skills. Sharing stories that are read to them, children have opportunities to share in conversation and gain commom background experiences.

Children enjoy listening to stories for many reasons. First of all, they feel secure because they have the direct attention of the person reading the story. Secondly, children love to learn new things and how things work. Thirdly, the child can put himself in the story as the characters unfold before him. Fourthly, children are exposed to books they cannot read.

Most children's books have pictures. As the teacher-aide proceeds through the book, she should share the pictures with the children. This enables the children to visualize the characters and the happenings in the story. If the children have questions about the pictures or story, the teacher-aide should answer them in language that the children understand. Children should be encouraged to talk as well as listen to the story. In some situations, it may be a good idea for the teacher-aide to let the children see the pictures and talk about the story before she begins to read the story. After the story has been completed, the book should be placed where children may look through it or read it individually. Also, the teacher-aide should not be surprised if the children ask the same story to be read over and over.

One of the mistaken ideas in education today is that school children eventually grow too old to listen to someone read to them or tell them stories. This is not true, junior and senior high school children will listen and enjoy well read or told stories if they are interesting to them. Some teachers, who read to their children in the upper grades, often times begin interesting books but never finish them, but many of the students will pick them up and finish them on their own.

How to Tell a Story:

In telling a story, the teacher-aide should learn the story as a series of pictures. If the story is read slowly, the teacher-aide will permit the character and events to form naturally in her mind. After reading the story the teacher-aide should close her eyes and let her imagination carry her back through the story so she can regain the pictures that have been developed in the mind. With the pictures well in mind, the teacher-aide should then reread the story two or three times and get the language to fit into the pictures that have been formed. After the pictures and language have been molded together, the teacher-aide should be ready to tell the story to children with confidence.

Audio-visual materials may help the teacher-aide in her story telling, such as the use of flannel materials that can be manipulated as the story is being told, or the use of transparencies that are projected as the story goes along, or the use of puppets.

After preparing the materials, the teacher-aide is then ready to plan her production. She must set the tempo of her voice (the pace she will talk) and the volume of voice to be used at certain times. She must also work on the facial expressions to be employed while telling the story. At times, she may be talking at a slow leisurely pace and at other times, she may be talking quite rapidly. She may be talking in a very low voice at times and at other times almost shouting. Of course, she may be playing many characters in the story and will have to have certain voices for each. The teacher-aide will want to work on the timing of the story and to close the story after the climax has been reached. The teacher-aide should use her own chosen words instead of sticking exactly with the book and she should use simple language. The teacher-aide must realize that the story must unfold as a series of pictures in the children's mind.

One thing about story telling, the teacher-aide will never have to ask children how they liked the story to get their reaction to it. She will see it on their faces whether she was a success or failure.

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